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FOREWORD

THE heightened activity of the postwar period is clearly reflected in an increase in the amount and the quality of research of interest to the guidance worker. Much of this research is concerned with a clearer understanding of the individual as he interacts with his social environment. Studies of the problems of subcultures in the United States and of the significance of social class have contributed much to this insight.

Concern over the number of adolescents leaving high school before graduating has led to more careful analyses of possible causal factors. Among these factors, dissatisfaction with the school situation and evidences of emotional maladjustment have outweighed economic need. The nationwide trend toward annual promotion, the reduction of retardation, and provision for continuous progress without specific grade-level boundaries is receiving greater emphasis than ever. Relatively few attempts have been made to present a comparative evaluation of the different varieties of guidance programs. Most of the literature in the area of organization, plans, and programs consists of descriptive surveys.

An effort has been made to understand the "unique" individual thru a patterned study of many characteristics. Personality dimensions, social status, and self-evaluation are among the kinds of factors under scrutiny. A more dynamic view of appraisal appears to be evolving in which status measures will be replaced by indicators of growth and of the possibility of change in status.

The literature dealing with counseling technics is still in the discussion stage, or, at best, in an exploratory period. Here and there the beginnings of clear-cut evaluation may be seen, presaging more and better research.

Cultural factors operating in the school society have been investigated by means of sociometric technics, case studies of leaders, and the analysis of social status indexes. Emphasis is clearly shifting to the study of groups as they form the living structure of the social environment. The intelligent exploitation of the interacting groups composing the school society would appear to be a major challenge to the guidance program.

The problem of increasing the functional literacy of the United States is being solved as shown by the decline in illiterates from 1.5 million in 1940 to fewer than 1 million in 1947. Enrolment statistics contribute added weight to the previously mentioned institutional research on high-school drop-outs.

More nearly complete and thoro job analyses of the work of counselors are needed. A beginning in this field has been made, however. Proposed training programs for guidance workers do not match the actual backgrounds possessed by such professional personnel. Little, if any, validation of certification requirements has been attempted.

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CHAPTER I

Characteristics and Needs of Individuals

CHARLES E. MEYERS, FRANK J. ESTVAN, and RAYMOND C. PERRY

Introduction and Bibliographical Note

RESEARCH on the basic qualities, characteristics, and needs of individuals and groups as related to counseling and guidance which has appeared during the three-year period of this review is summarized in this chapter. Over 300 bibliographical items were examined. It is hoped that the resultant bibliography is a representative sample. To conserve space many items listed are not discussed in the text; the bibliography is composed almost exclusively of reports with new data. In some cases an entire series of excellent papers is represented only by a recent number. Examples of the latter are the series on handedness by Hildreth (37) and the case analyses by Wells (97).

Physical Growth, Physique, Motor Function

Data on both the longitudinal and cross-sectional variety have appeared. Jones and Bayley (47) contrasted some early and late maturing adolescent boys and found that the former showed maturity in emotional and social characteristics while the latter revealed many evidences of immaturity, often with psychologically compensating mechanisms. With similar data Jones (46) and Nevers (62) made longitudinal studies of strength development, associating it with pubertal and other factors. Early maturers were stronger and superior in athletics. In girls there appeared some arrest in strength development with the completion of puberty while boys continued to advance in strength thru the teens.

Meredith (55) presented evidence that first-born are smaller at birth. Data for later infancy and up to at least 14 years indicate that at these ages the first-born become taller tho not heavier. Beal (10) found some growth deficiency in diabetic children. The menarche and the nature of the menstrual cycle were studied in Mooseheart girls by Reymert and Jost (73). Reynolds and Schoen (74) reported on identical triplet boys followed from ages two to 18. Burks and Roe (15) presented evidence regarding four pairs of identical twins separately reared and found no new conclusive evidence favoring a nurture or nature thesis. Sheldon and others (77) produced the third volume of their series, relating somatypes to psychiatric and criminal applications.

Data for health, disease, mortality, and other aspects of physical welfare in Negroes have been analyzed from census reports (28). Two studies of infants merit attention. Balint (7) examined sucking phenomena in

infants while Kunst (51) made a detailed study of the frequency and occasions of thumb- and finger-sucking, showing their relation to hunger state, food intake, and other factors.

The most celebrated research in the three-year period is probably the extensive report on sexual behavior in males, by Kinsey, Pomeroy, and Martin (48). Data based on interviews and histories were sorted by age, marital state, socio-economic status, religion, and other factors. The interrelation of factors with emergence and development of sexual outlets was presented in great detail. The validity of the findings was examined by "re-takes" and other means. The results revealed more other-than-legal and other-than-marital sex experiences than have generally been believed characteristic of the American male. They showed considerable sex concern and activity previous to puberty, and a wide range of sex vigor, frequency of outlet, and mixing of experiences.

Mental Development, Personality

Factor analysis, utilizing the complex manipulation of axes, continued to be used for the study of component factors. However, most of the research was concerned mainly with technical aspects of the method. Such a study was North's (63) in which two primary dimensions were suggested to describe Guilford's STDCR, the Kuder, and the Army GCT.

Swineford (86) studied the nature of the general, verbal, and spatial bi-factors. She demonstrated that these bi-factors maintain their same relative importance for groups which differ widely in mental maturity or in brightness, and that each bi-factor has its own characteristic growth curve. Kleemeier and Dudek (49), on a battery of 13 tests at the college level designed to measure numerical, perceptual speed, and verbal factors, extracted four factors which could account for performance on "shifting tests"; they concluded there was no need to postulate flexibility or a perseveration factor. Jeffress (43) considered problems in factor analysis having to do with mixed populations or combining unlike populations, arriving at factor compositions not too like those of homogeneous groups. Clark (17), in a study of five levels of the *California Test of Mental Maturity* to determine age change in specific abilities, found approximately the same number of factors was required to account for the variance in mental abilities at the primary and elementary levels as at the high-school age.

Adcock (1) continued the use of factor analysis in the field of personality, studying Sheldon's table of intercorrelations by means of the Thurstone multiple group method, and obtained four factors to explain data which otherwise proved difficult to analyze. Spearman and Jones (82) reviewed many studies and consolidated them into a thoro argument for the major theses of the *Abilities of Man*.

The growth and consistency of intelligence continued to be investigated. Honnik, MacFarlane, and Allen (39) tested 252 children between two and 18 years with widely varying results; altho between six and 18 there is a

suggested mental test stability, there are many individual deviations of considerable amount. Bayley (9) studied the consistency and variability in the growth of intelligence from birth to 18 years. Thorndike (91) examined 1004 youths with two or more testings on the *ACE Psychological Examination* and supported the Freeman-Flory finding of increasing ability in those remaining in school. Knehr and Sobol (50) found that the mental ability at early school age of 99 prematurely born children was not inferior.

An unusually complete and significant report was that of Terman and Oden (88) in their 25-year follow-up study of 1528 subjects. As a result of extensive field studies relative to physical, mental, educational, occupational, marital, and other adjustments, the senior author is still convinced that the IQ level is one of the most important facts that can be learned about any child. Skodak and Skeels (80) reported their "final follow-up" of children of inferior parentage placed in adoptive homes in early infancy. The subjects, this time tested at ages ranging from 11 to 19 years, maintained superiority to their natural parents, and resembled the "own children" of families like those in which they were placed. Other Iowa studies of similar vein were reported by Skeels and Harms (78), and by Skodak (79).

Other phases of intellectual activity were investigated by Thorndike (90) in a study of the community factors related to intelligence and achievement of school children; by Foulds (22), who studied 5000 British men on various tests to determine variations in the intellectual activities of adults; and by Hood (40), who analyzed the scores of 401 deaf children to learn that their mean IQ was approximately the same as for hearing children.

Fifteen variables were examined by Harris (31). In this preliminary factor analysis study many loadings were unexplained, but the methodology was promising. Vocabulary differences and abilities were investigated by Feifel and Lorge (21), Fox (23), and Traxler (92) on various age levels from infancy to 79. Feifel and Lorge found a qualitative evaluation of the Stanford-Binet vocabulary section an aid in supplementing other sources of data concerning the child's thinking process, while Fox found no significant difference in the quality of definitions given between those in their forties and those in their seventies.

Hahn (29), recording the speech of 116 first-grade pupils, discovered all the types of speakers observable in college speech classes represented among the children. Pratt (68) examined the use of indeterminate number concepts in children of Grades II to XI. Gewirtz (24) attempted with rhymes, alliterations, and other devices to approximate Thurstone's verbal-fluency factor in children five to seven, and related it to other factors. Other developmental studies of mental and conceptual life are: Nagy (60) on theories of death, three to 10 years; Ames and Learned (2, 3) on verbalization of space, and smiling and laughing, 18 months to four years; Synolds and Pronko (87) on color discrimination, three to eight years;

a follow-up study of Shirley's babies was made after 15 years by Neilon (61). He found considerable maintenance of individuality of personality when descriptions of the children at adolescent ages were compared with those Shirley originally made.

The art content preferred by primary-grade children was determined by Dietrich and Hunnicutt (19) who compared boy and girl preferences among seascapes, landscapes, people, and various degrees of brightness. Using the ACE test, Borg (14) found no significant difference between the intelligence of art majors and other college students. There were many other scattered, but nevertheless important, studies in various fields. Owens and Johnson (65) measured the personality traits of college under-achievers. Lehman and Heidler (53), in a study of chronological age vs. literary output, noted that the "best" years might be any between 20 and 75, but more likely 25 to 45. Harvey (34) examined the consistency of philosophical attitudes in persons untrained in philosophy and found their beliefs to be inconsistent.

Miscellaneous Needs and Problems

Sanders (76) demonstrated security as a factor in social adjustment at different ages. Winker (99) compared ages and sexes on the *Wishes and Fears Inventory*. Volberding (94) compared children who were socially and academically successful with those who were not. Yarrow (100) reported little difference on projective play between control and frustrated groups at preschool age. Young (101) compared 218 preschool children with a previous group of 1320 college students; Williams (98) examined similar problems at the high-school level.

During this period a significant publication for counselors was the Purdue Opinion Poll (69). In this report 15,000 students of high-school age indicated their reactions to the things that bother them most such as the school, the home, the things they would like to know about, etc. College students' problems were investigated by Rose (75) and Hunter and Morgan (41). Studies of veterans' problems continued, altho there were few unique contributions. Hardaway (30) and Miller and Brackin (56) studied veterans to facilitate their handling by veteran centers, and Moore (58) summed up the problem by noting that the effect of the war on the ability to adjust to a campus situation was evident but easy to exaggerate.

Glasner (25) studied 70 stutterers under five years, finding they had many emotional manifestations other than stuttering. Tyszkowski and Laslett (93) analyzed the physical characteristics of physically handicapped college students in their attempts to carry college work. Cruickshank and Dolphin (18) analyzed the emotional needs of crippled children and found them similar to those of the noncrippled except in cases wherein the handicap functionally represented something irreparable to the child or constituted an unacceptable factor. Birkeness and Johnson (13) investigated differences between delinquents and nondelinquents. Mangus

(54) found the average level of personality maladjustments significantly higher among farm children than among urban children.

Norvell (64) thoroly appraised interest in 1700 literary selections in Grades VII thru XII and showed sex to be the primary differential. Film choices of 2069 British adolescents were given by Wall and Smith (96). Andersen (4) noted sex differences in the hobbies of 686 junior high-school students. Heisler (36) found no differences of note between elementary-school children who indulged excessively in movies, radio, and comics and those who seldom indulged. Bateman (8) related vocational choice to work experience and Moser (59) related vocational choice to ability. Lawrence (52) reported on Negro aspirations in 13 high schools. Thorndike (89) reported on the permanence of interests, and Jersild and Tasch (44) on wishes, likes, and dislikes of pupils in Grades I thru XII.

Subcultures and Social Class

A definite trend in recent research has been toward the examination of the characteristic values, needs, and problems of the subcultures in the United States and the significance of social class. A variety of approaches has been employed to study concepts and attitudes about minority groups. Zeligs (103) used her *Intergroup Attitudes Test* to study 12-year-old ethnic group members over a period from 1931 on. Hartley (33) used the recorded interview. A social episode test consisting of interview questions and pictures was administered by Radke, Trager, and Davis (72). An interview-doll play technic was the basis for the study made by Radke and Trager (71). These investigations have uniformly revealed the early emergence and persistence of certain minority-majority group stereotypes. Gough (27) found a relationship between these concepts and certain personality factors, but much remains to be done in this area. Goff (26) interviewed 150 Negro boys and girls and parents to determine the effect of these stereotypes of minority-group children. Social pressures were found to transcend selective factors such as geographical location, socio-economic level, and skin shading, and produced feelings of resentment in Negro children. That this awareness of inferior state is present in five-year-olds was revealed by Clark and Clark (16).

The effects of social class on developing personalities has also been of great interest. Social-class differences in the identification of sex roles, and their effect on personality integration were pointed out by Milner (57) and Rabban (70). Analyzing the social behavior of 735 adolescents of both sexes, Hollingshead (38) concluded that social class is significantly related to major functions such as education, vocation, religion, recreation, and socialization. Volberding (95) similarly reported social class differences in the out-of-school life of 11-year-old children, especially with reference to living space, play activities, and radio listening. Characteristic also of this kind of approach is the study of Havighurst and Taba (35)

who used a social-class orientation as the focal point for their comprehensive analysis of character formation in adolescents. A relationship was found between types of character identified and social class.

Home and Neighborhood Influences

Major attention was given to the role of parent-child relationships in adjustment. Spitz (84) discovered that the emotional interchange between child and mother was related to the mortality rate of institutionalized children. Stout and Langdon (85) in a study of 158 children six to 21 revealed that parental attitudes such as love, acceptance, and respect were the explanatory factors for good adjustment. The influence of democratic parents on nursery-school behavior was studied by Baldwin (6). From his investigation of 100 junior high-school pupils, Beals (11) concluded that the most important factor in the development of a well-adjusted child was the presence of a cooperative and democratic family relationship. That family authority patterns are transmitted to children if both parents practice a consistent policy was revealed by Ingersoll (42).

Group Processes

Altho theory still outruns research in this area, several interesting developments have taken place. Berenda (12) demonstrated that peer influence is greater than the teacher's in causing a child to give wrong responses in spite of his knowledge of fact. The converse, the effect of one child's action on the group, was investigated in a summer camp for disturbed children by Polansky, Lippitt, and Redl (67). Harris (32) employed a variety of technics to study the reactions of kindergarten children to the behavior of their classmates. Analyzing the friendships of 487 sixth-grade children, Austin and Thompson (5) found that personality was the most important factor influencing children's selections followed by propinquity and similarity of interests. Investigations of the group process were extended to the college level during this period. Evans and Wilson (20) reported a high relationship between the friendship choices of 148 university women students and such factors as geographical proximity, class in university, and religion. Studying the acquaintance-ship and social status of 326 freshmen and sophomore women in physical education classes, Skubic (81) concluded that the number of social isolates decreases as the members of the group become better acquainted.

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CHAPTER II

Conditions Affecting the Guidance Program

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MAJOR researches in this area are few, despite a considerable body of literature that represents local practice and current thinking. It has been the reviewer's intent to include such research as was available and such reports as were illustrative of trends or general current practice.

Staff Participation

The success of a program of guidance is related to the interest, ability, and training of the people engaged in the activity. The personal qualities of the counselor, such as ability to achieve rapport, to inspire confidence, and to influence as individuals the thinking and the emotional experiences of young people, must be combined with technical knowledge, insights, attitudes, and skills to guarantee maximum effectiveness and quality in a guidance service (35, 49). Guidance service, according to Douglass (35), may be classified into five levels, each successive level calling for a greater amount of training. Two safeguards must be set up to insure an effective guidance service in a school: (a) teachers must have time to perform the necessary activities and to take part in an inservice training program and (b) teachers must be adequately motivated. Douglass also outlines nine fields of inservice training necessary for a growing program. The three outstanding problems in drawing members of the staff into the field of personnel service are: (a) to obtain wholehearted interest in this field; (b) to see that sufficient members of the staff are adequately trained; and (c) to see that those participating in guidance have sufficient time, adequate library aids, and expert advice in the more important areas in which service is called for. Services and programs of guidance and counseling should be developed only as rapidly and in such ways as are commensurate with the numbers and abilities of the personnel available to implement the program (87).

Personnel Records

Strang (142) summarized four values of cumulative records: (a) showing trends from year to year in reference to each type of growth or activity reported, (b) showing relationship among the items recorded, (c) serving as a starting point for the counselor or teacher in an interview, and (d) providing a basis for curriculum development.

In reference to the use of cumulative records in guidance, Traxler (149) called attention to the trend toward the orderly accumulation and recording of a variety of information concerning each individual. He traced

briefly the history of cumulative records and stressed the frequently forgotten or overlooked value of developing new records as a device for staff training. He emphasized the tendency to give increased space to personal qualities and to objective data relative to ability, achievement, and interests. Raab (123) stressed the importance of using records in helping individual children. Twenty advantages of using anecdotal records were listed by Bieker (11). One of the most extensive surveys of the use of cumulative records was reported by Michaelis (102, 103). Approximately 80 percent of the 68 cities replying stated that cumulative records were used. These records varied from cards used only for recording grades to elaborate folders for recording data related to the total development of children. Michaelis recommended the folder as the most promising type.

Elementary- and Secondary-School Enrolments

For several years prior to 1946 elementary-school enrolment had been decreasing. This trend has now changed. The number of live births per 1000 population in the United States increased from 17.1 in 1937 to 21.5 in 1943. Birth rates in the war years, 1944 and 1945, decreased to 20.2 and 19.6 respectively, but increased again to 23.3 in 1946 and 25.9 in 1947 (90, 152). This high birth rate will bring 7,000,000 children into the schools by 1956 (7). The elementary-school enrolment will be 46 percent greater in 1957 than in 1947 (46, 61, 90, 134).

Elliott (37, 38, 39) predicted, on the basis of the factors which he outlined and of other relevant data, that a decline can be expected in the late 1950's in the elementary school, but not before 1965 in the secondary school. Linn (90) estimated that the elementary-school enrolment peak will come in 1958.

Linn (90) reported and interpreted for members of schoolboards the estimates made by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company of school-age population for the period 1948 to 1960. He pointed out that a study of these data reveals that in 1958 there will be approximately 34,200,000 children between the ages of six and 17 years, or some 6,900,000 more than the 27,300,000 estimated for 1948. However, the number of pupils of high-school age, from 14 to 17 years, will continue to increase after 1958. An estimated total enrolment in the public schools for 1950-51 of 25,730,097 was issued by the NEA Research Division (109) in November 1950.

Studies on a statewide basis surveying present enrolment or predicting future enrolment were reported in bulletins or periodicals for California (20, 31), Illinois (70), Indiana (163), Michigan (69), New York (125, 138), Pennsylvania (119), and Texas (64, 129).

Data on the school enrolment in 135 representative cities of over 10,000 in population for 1947-48 and 1948-49 are included in a report by the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association (110). Figures on enrolment in January 1949 and January 1950 for

cities over 2500 in population were given in another publication by the same agency (111).

Colleges and Universities Enrolments

Hoff (65) in 1948 showed a heavy concentration of students in a few colleges and universities. He found that 1,011,564 students, nearly one-half of the total college students, were enrolled in only 288 institutions.

Recktenwald (124) reported a study of 121 veterans, high-school graduates, who chose certain vocational objectives which involved college attendance. He found approximately 50 percent capable of undertaking college work. This is roughly comparable to the figure given by the President's Commission on Higher Education (156).

Williams (166) gave a clear exposition of the discrepancies between the two major reports on enrolment in institutions of higher learning, the U. S. Office of Education term enrolment data published each fall and the Walters report published annually in *School and Society*.

For 30 years, Walters (162) has published his "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges." Walters (161) also reported the results of a study of 154 institutions of higher education in 30 states covering the years 1946-1949. The greatest factor in fluctuation in numbers enrolled was the incoming and outgoing tide of veterans. This factor accounted for an increase of 582,017 full-time students in these institutions in 1946 to a peak enrolment of 639,092, followed by a decline to 600,943 in 1949.

The report of Group I of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers in 1949 (6) outlined the factors affecting enrolment trends in institutions of higher learning and the circumstances under which estimates of enrolment must be modified, and also made predictions of the veteran, nonveteran, and total enrolments with percent of change from previous year.

Jenkins (71, 72, 73) has reported annually for some years the trends in enrolment in Negro institutions of higher learning. McGinnis (94) reported a study of the enrolment of Negro students in Ohio colleges for the school year 1948-49.

Studies were made of college enrolment potential in California (23, 31), Indiana (163), Pennsylvania (118, 119), and Texas (22). Studies of more limited scope were those in the Cleveland area (164) and for the University of Akron, a municipal university (42).

Private and Parochial Schools

Enrolment in nonpublic elementary schools has risen steadily for the past 25 years. Catholic schools account for about 93 percent of these enrolments, according to Sister Rose Marie (128). The largest enrolments ever attained in the Catholic secondary schools and colleges are reported, and further increases are predicted (44, 108).

Holding Power of the Schools

Indications that only 42 percent of the students who were in the fifth grade in 1938-39 graduated from high school in 1946, were presented in a Work Conference on Life Adjustment Education (155). In Hollywood, California, 43 percent of the high-school enrolment dropped out before graduation; in Columbus, Ohio, 31 percent left school; in 76 representative Illinois high schools, the range of drop-outs was from 6 percent in one high school to 80 percent in another, with a median of 30 percent. In the city of New York the drop-out rates for individual schools vary from about 5 percent to about 65 percent. In spite of this dark picture, there is a ray of hope in the fact that the school survival rate, according to Gragg (54), has increased 215 percent in the past 25 years.

Reasons for Dropping Out

The findings of the numerous studies of holding power of our schools which have been reported recently seem to disagree in many respects with those of previous years or with popular impression. In contrast to the emphasis laid upon economic reasons in the earlier studies, the more recent reports have pointed out the relative unimportance now attached to economic reasons by youth who leave school (8, 132, 133). Syracuse youth, who gave school situations as reasons for leaving (136), represented 61 percent of the drop-outs. The Louisville survey (74, 75) also showed that dissatisfaction with school as the occasion for leaving loomed considerably larger than economic reasons. The decision to leave school usually was the result of complex pressures involving educational maladjustment, economic need, desire for independence, and various other factors.

In Dillon's *Early School Leavers* (32), there is close agreement with the results of the Syracuse study. An even larger proportion, 69 percent, indicated that dissatisfaction with school was of first importance in their decision to leave school. Seven symptoms of vulnerability to school-leaving were listed: (a) fairly constant regression in scholarship from elementary school to junior high school and to senior high school, (b) frequent grade failures in the elementary school, (c) high frequency of grade or subject failures in the junior or senior high school, (d) marked regression in attendance from elementary school to junior to senior high school, (e) frequent transfers from one school to another, (f) evidence of a feeling of insecurity or "lack of belonging" in school, and (g) marked lack of interest in schoolwork. Gragg (55) reported a study of drop-outs and graduates in Utica, New York, and New Haven, Connecticut. No one item studied discriminated completely between drop-outs and graduates. Other studies of reasons why pupils quit school were made in Austin, Texas (17, 86), in Camden, New Jersey (18), and in Missoula, Montana (126). Tompkins posed the question of the difference in holding power

of the school in regard to sex in "Where Are the Boys?" (147). The U. S. Office of Education (155) reported that Christopher emphasized the lack of "emotional willingness to work" and retardation as factors differentiating between drop-outs and graduates. A somewhat different approach was reported by Dreier and Kreitlow in their study of the plans of rural youth in Minnesota (36).

Studies appeared on the holding power of the public schools of San Francisco (139), Minneapolis (9, 10, 137), Utica (55), and New Haven (55), of Illinois high schools (5, 57), and of a Philadelphia vocational-technical high school (80). The holding power of the school as a factor in enrolment was discussed by Gragg (56) and by Foster (45). Details on how to conduct a holding power study were given by Allen (5) and Gragg (55).

Prevention of Early School Leaving

Under the guidance of the U. S. Office of Education, representatives of the 50 largest cities met in January 1950 to study the problem of drop-outs in public schools. They appraised the problem and developed a suggested program for reducing the high incidence of premature school leavers (155). A similar conference was scheduled for 1951 to develop a uniform accounting and research procedure in order that cities may make simultaneous studies and eventually compare findings and suggested approaches to the problem. Others who have advanced suggestions for reducing school leaving were Holbeck (66), Lambert (85), Martin (98), Swem (144), and Woellner (168).

Recent studies emphasized the need of closer collaboration between administrators and teachers, and of expanding special services. They also reaffirm the need of a professional staff possessed of a greater understanding of the dynamics of individual and group behavior.

Withdrawal from College

Studies dealing with the problem of veteran withdrawal from college were reported by Aaronson (1, 2), and Lipsett and Smith (91). Other studies of withdrawal were reported by Love (92) for evening classes, by Cumings (29) for DePauw University, and by Tyszkowski (150) for physically defective college students. Hewer and Keating (62) reported that business firms hiring salesmen did not penalize college drop-outs.

Attendance

Recent studies have been concerned with basic factors affecting regularity of school attendance. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (26, 101, 151) sponsored an extensive investigation of absence in seven

cities of California, involving 8000 children, most of whom were under 12 years of age. Eighty-five percent of the children enrolled had some absence during the semester. The total time lost amounted to 76 days per 1000 pupil-days. Eighty-seven percent of the time lost was due to absence for medical reasons. The principal cause of nonmedical absence was trips away from home, accounting for 36 percent. Sixteen percent was due to helping at home, more common among girls than among boys. Parental neglect was responsible for 15 percent of the absence in this group, and truancy for 7 percent.

The Citizens' Committee on Children of New York City (24, 25) approached the problem from the standpoints of socio-economic correlates and of referred cases. The Committee studied the relation of school attendance to age of school building, size of class, type of neighborhood, home rental rate, and ethnic group. Findings were not conclusive except in the case of socio-economic level, where it was found that attendance rates were highest in stable middle-class areas and lowest in slum and transitional neighborhoods.

Mohr (105) studied 40 unlawfully absent pupils who were disturbed. Of the 31 adolescents, only five had been truant before adolescence. All had entered adolescence "emotionally starved," and found difficulty in making the transition from a single teacher to the departmental system. The beginning of truancy could frequently be traced to fear arising from a school situation which threatened to reveal some weakness on the part of the pupil. Nine reading deficiencies were noted, and 15 cases of arithmetic retardation.

Thompson (145) observed an increase in cases of school phobia in good socio-economic areas of New York, in contrast to a very low case rate for Harlem. She studied 32 cases, describing symptoms and indicating methods of treatment. In the developing stage, the phobia is likely to take the form of habitual lateness. Later it becomes chronic absence or extreme panic in school, with such symptoms as nausea, crying, dizziness, or vomiting. There is usually a precipitating incident such as removal to a new neighborhood or school, a new teacher, or a scolding or other "attack." Twenty-three of the cases studied were average or higher in intelligence, but 30 were retarded in arithmetic, reading, or both. The most constant factor was found to be the personality of the parents. For the most part, the mothers are characterized as overanxious, oversolicitous, domineering, immature, and narcissistic, whereas the fathers are likely to be gentle, kindly men dominated by their wives.

Mullen (107) investigated truancy in relation to disorderly conduct in the classroom. The 1628 truancy or disciplinary cases in the study were divided into preadolescent and adolescent groups. More home problems, particularly among adolescent groups, were found for truants than for disciplinary cases. Lack of self-confidence and inadequate recreational facilities were especially noted for the truant group. The discipline group was found to have greater retardation. Truancy increased with age, whereas

the incidence of discipline cases decreased. Intelligence did not differentiate the groups. All groups had many physical handicaps, erratic school history, social and family problems, poor personal adjustment, and serious educational retardation, particularly in drill subjects. Wiens (165) also found serious retardation in pupils studied by the attendance service in Cleveland, and pointed out their need for curriculum adjustment and for sympathetic teachers.

Progress Thru School

Failure

Failure studies for the decade 1935-1945 were reviewed by Lafferty (84). Comparing the causes of failure as stated by teachers and pupils, he found close agreement with studies of the preceding decade. Teachers continue to attribute failure to pupil factors, and pupils still lay the cause of failure upon the teacher.

Studying educational progress at the college level, Gerard (51) found growth in certain areas after completion of pertinent courses, and even when a course was not taken. With respect to "passing" courses, he observes that tests of a general nature indicate that students differ widely in the level at which they begin and complete a course.

Promotion

Over recent years there has been a strong trend toward annual promotion (112), particularly in New England and the Northwest. This is particularly true in the smaller districts, where administrative convenience may weigh heavily. Annual promotion is reported most frequently at the elementary level and least frequently for the senior high school. In Waco, Texas (15), before the introduction of annual promotion, the failure rate in Grade I was 22 percent for the first term and 16 percent for the second term. After the change to annual promotion, the failure rate in Grade I dropped to 16 percent for the year. For the entire elementary level, failure was reduced 5.8 percent for each term to 4.0 percent for the year.

Dodes (33) reported an experiment with annual promotion in a four-year high school in the city of New York in an effort to reduce the high rate of failure at the middle of the tenth grade. All students were taught by the same teacher thruout the year. In five semesters this plan appeared to have eliminated 474 failures which would normally have occurred in the first term of Grade X by providing a longer adjustment period and relieving tension so that pupils were able to make up their deficiencies by the end of the year.

There is a trend toward a policy of "no failure," commonly referred to as "automatic promotion" (88, 112). Such policies were reported by 17

percent of school districts, particularly in the Far West and in large cities (112). Districts reporting "no failure" policies tend to expand rather than to curtail the practice. Parental approval is indicated in the majority of districts studied by the Milwaukee Teachers' Association (88).

A popular attempt to overcome the evils of pupil failure was the elimination of grade lines (48, 77, 112, 160). This practice was reported for one or more schools in 17 percent of school districts (112). A number of districts have experimented with plans for continuous progress. Richmond, Indiana (160), divided pupils into three broad levels, kindergarten, primary grades, and the intermediate grades. Classes were subdivided into small flexible groups which shift constantly. South Plainfield, New Jersey (48), has operated an elementary school in which pupils are grouped by age, physical development, and social adjustment. They progress in groups of two or three whenever ready, but such adjustments are never made at the end of the year. A novel feature of the plan consists in sending birthday cards to all five-year-olds in the district with an invitation to come to kindergarten on the first of the following month. The Milwaukee experiment with continuous progress at the primary level, begun in 1942, has expanded to include 40 schools (43). Particular care was taken to orient both teachers and parents before inaugurating the program in each school.

Acceleration

Dohan (34) reported an accelerated program in which able students, remaining within the regular class organization, were able to do three semesters' work in two semesters. The absence of maladjustment problems she attributed to the fact that the accelerated pupils progressed in a group, thus avoiding such problems as might arise when an individual pupil is placed in an older group. An accelerated program at a university high school is described by Kreps and Maurer (83).

Pressey (120) reported an extensive research on acceleration at the college level undertaken at Ohio State University in 1942. He emphasized the social danger of the "lock-step" system which keeps young people in college at the age when they should be beginning their careers and playing their roles in the adult world. Accelerated students were found to do better work in less time than their fellow students. Acceleration of carefully selected individuals did not cause maladjustment (100). Van Der Jagt and Angell (157) presented evidence that accelerated students do better in botany and zoology courses than nonaccelerated students of similar mental ability and initial achievement.

Exceptional Children

A considerable volume of literature on the exceptional child has appeared in publications of the past few years. It has dealt principally with the physically handicapped. For the most part, current practice is de-

scribed, altho increasing attention has been accorded to the emotional needs and personality aspects of exceptional children.

Extent of Special Provisions

The number of school systems making some special provision for the exceptional child doubled from the year 1940 to the biennium 1946-1948. The number of children served increased 20 percent (154). The total enrolment in public day and residential classes for exceptional children was 441,820. This represents approximately 11 percent of the estimated number of children needing special provision. The increased enrolments have resulted from extended provision for speech defectives, the home-bound and hospitalized, the socially maladjusted, the gifted children, and the exceptional child at the secondary-school level. Enrolments decreased for mental and visual defectives and for delicate children. The status of services for the home-bound was presented by the U. S. Office of Education (153). Ellis (40) reported a trend toward greater attention to physical and medical needs of handicapped children, and noted increased concern with cerebral palsy. In a survey of services for exceptional children in Pennsylvania, English (41) reported that 77 percent of the districts with district superintendents provided instruction for home-bound children.

A severe limitation to the expansion of services in this area is the shortage of teachers. Orleans (115) presented data on the number, certification requirements, and salaries of teachers of the handicapped for 18 large cities, observing that the customary small salary differentials are not adequate.

Martens (96, 97) analyzed the legal basis for the education of exceptional children and advanced 10 basic principles that should be observed. Tho nearly every state makes some legal provision for exceptional children, only Florida, Illinois, Iowa, and New York have a sufficient legal foundation for the establishment and financing of a complete program involving physical, mental, and emotional deviates. Recent legislation (97) revealed an interest in the preschool handicapped child, and appropriations indicate a willingness to meet the increased costs of special education.

Visually Handicapped

Buell (19) studied gross motor performance of 865 partially sighted and blind children in various track and field activities. He found their performance poorer than that of sighted pupils, but observed such improvement as would indicate the desirability of a track and field program for these children.

Hard of Hearing

Evidence that the hard-of-hearing child has a slower rate of school progress than the normal child was reported by Sprunt (140), who studied

692 children. Pugh (121) observed that the acoustically handicapped child is capable of becoming a good reader. He found some excellent readers among deaf children, altho the reading level for the group was quite low. Oleron (114) found deaf children markedly inferior to normal children in intelligence as tested by Raven's *Progressive Matrices*. Those whose deafness was of recent origin were superior to those who had been deaf from birth or early years.

Crippled

Cruikshank and Dolphin (27) studied the emotional needs of crippled children. They found the need for love and affection was overmet for both boys and girls, particularly in Grades VII to XII. More opportunity to make their own decisions was needed by these children. Postpolio-myelitis cases studied by Seidenfeld (135) showed psychosomatic effects indicating a need for security, and reflected the emotional attitudes of parents and community and the overlimitation of activities. The social relationships within a group of 20 crippled children were investigated in a preliminary study by Cruikshank and Medve (28) using the "guess who" technic.

Delinquent

Glueck and Glueck (52) made an unusually thoro comparison of 500 delinquent boys in state correctional schools with a nondelinquent group matched on age, intelligence, ethno-racial origin, and residence in underprivileged neighborhoods. Delinquents were found to be of the muscular, solid type. They tend to express themselves in a direct, immediate, concrete manner. They tend to show a higher degree of ability on the performance items of intelligence tests and a lower ability on the verbal items. Delinquents are generally extroversive, vivacious, impulsive, hostile, resentful, defiant, suspicious, and destructive. They have less self-control, less fear of failure, and are less concerned about convention than are nondelinquents. They are less submissive to authority, more socially assertive, and tend to feel that they are not appreciated. Their school achievement is inferior and their behavior characterized by lack of interest, tardiness, laziness, carelessness, truancy, disobedience, impertinence, and a stubborn, sullen attitude. Many of the personal traits of delinquents are those which, under happier circumstances, might produce the pioneer. Having generally described the delinquent, the authors indicated that the next step is to discover why some children with traits characteristic of delinquents are nondelinquent, and vice versa.

Zakolski (169) found 23 traits which characterize delinquent boys and an equal number which do not. As compared with nondelinquent boys, he found the delinquent to be less intelligent, to have less of certain mechanical and clerical abilities, and to be inferior in health, social

adjustment, school abilities, and family and community relations. He presents an "initial psychological inadequacy plus the development of a new, socially unacceptable, adjustive reaction." Studying 25 delinquents with court records in comparison with a group of nondelinquents, Birkeness and Johnson (14) found inferior school achievement and creativeness and more grade repetitions among the delinquents. They also had less influence over their associates, more socially unacceptable traits, and felt less secure in their social relationships. They were less stable emotionally, less interested in their own welfare and demonstrated less purpose, decisiveness, and persistence.

Mentally Retarded

Provisions for children with IQ's below 50 were surveyed by Parsons (117). These children are commonly exempted from school attendance. Only St. Paul, Minnesota, among the 23 school systems surveyed, provides specifically for these children. It has three special classes enrolling these low IQ pupils from five to 21 years of age. Attendance is voluntary, and all pupils are transported.

Hollinshead (67) described a technic successful in the placement of mentally retarded boys and girls in the secondary school. Thorne (146) reported a program of counseling for mental defectives in a state institution with resulting improvement in institutional morale and in the individual welfare of the children.

Hill (63) retested 107 children with IQ's between 50 and 81 after varying periods of special-class instruction and found "little support to a thesis of IQ improvement insofar as the effects of adequate schooling upon subnormal and borderline children are concerned."

There is considerable interest in glutamic acid therapy for the mentally retarded. Zimmerman and Burgemeister (170), and Zimmerman, Burgemeister, and Putnam (171) found average gains of 10 months in mental age during six months of glutamic acid therapy. An added six months yielded less return. The gains persisted well, being most stable for cases having the full year of treatment and for those who had gained most. Quinn and Durling (122), Waelsch (158, 159), Sister Maureen (99), and Levine (89) indicated improvement following glutamic acid treatment, whereas McCulloch (93) and Kerr and Szurek (78) found no evidence of improvement. Levine's (89) subjects were deaf. She noted greater alertness and responsiveness to environment, and in one case marked improvement in physical appearance.

Gifted

Wilson (167) surveyed by questionnaire the educational provisions for gifted children. Sixty-one percent of the respondents reported special provision for the bright child thru special classes, limited acceleration,

or enrichment. There was considerable interest in the socialization of the gifted and in their individual needs.

Vocational Possibilities for the Handicapped

Kossoris (82) studied industrial workers with serious physical handicaps, comparing them with matched nonhandicapped cases. He found the handicapped in 1500 types of job. The rate of output of the handicapped averaged 1 percent better than that of the nonhandicapped, falling below that of the control group in only 27 percent of the cases. Absence was greater among the handicapped by one day per year. The rate of injury was lower for the handicapped, and the type of injury depended on the job rather than on the type of physical handicap. McIntosh (95) followed up 1000 graduates of a trade school for "nonacademic" boys who had been out of school from one to 10 years. The importance of personal characteristics for vocational success was stressed by Michal-Smith (104).

Johnson (76) reviewed studies on guidance for the mentally handicapped and indicated the present status of findings. He observed that without guidance the mentally retarded have goals beyond the possibility of achievement, and stressed the need for integrated guidance training from early years thru the process of job adjustment.

Methods, Materials, and Facilities

Methods, materials, and facilities for the various types of exceptional children are discussed at length in a yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (113).

Several articles (12, 58, 59, 60) describe or review tests for use with the visually handicapped. Cummings (30) reviewed research on mechanical means of printing braille and producing Talking Books. Rusalem (130) surveyed guidance practices in schools for the blind.

Kirk and Perry (79) compared the Ontario and Nebraska tests for measuring the intelligence of deaf children. A new group hearing device was described and experimentally evaluated by Hudgins (68). Pugh's (121) study provided data for compiling deaf norms on two widely used reading tests. Adelson (3) described materials and equipment available for the education of deaf preschool children.

The effectiveness of psychological tests for determining and interpreting the needs of the speech handicapped was discussed by Stinchfield-Hawk (141). Two new devices for visible speech, the sound spectograph and the cathode ray translator, were described by Kopp and Green (81). Breckwoldt (16) described the use of the artificial palate. The trend to the recognition of five stages of treatment for stuttering was presented by Ainsworth (4).

Cassel (21) presented an adaptation of the Oseretsky test of motor maturation for American use. Rimoldi (127) described and discussed Raven's *Progressive Matrices Test*, and its use with the cerebral palsied was discussed by Tracht (148). Schoenbohm (131) and Gauerke (50) discuss the planning of school buildings for crippled children.

Birch (13) validated the Goodenough test for older mental defectives, finding it satisfactory for use with children with IQ's of 70 or below. French (47) used remedial reading technics devised for use with normal children who have patterns of associational deficiencies with three mentally retarded children who had these deficiencies, and found promising results.

Mensch (100) studied the use of the Rorschach test with gifted children, observing the necessity for considering both quality and quantity of response, for considering age and sex, and for basing evaluations on norms for varying age and IQ.

A two-way telephone technic for use with the home-bound was described by Parker and Winterstein (116).

The materials and methods of diagnosis and treatment of the brain-injured child were extensively presented by Strauss and Lehtinen (143).

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CHAPTER III

Programs of Guidance

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THE large amount of available material that describes both total as well as specific aspects of guidance programs thruout the country seems to be a fair indication that organized guidance or personnel services are becoming more common than was true three years ago. The increase, during the past few years, in the number of studies that show the extent and nature of regional and statewide guidance programs, and the gradual appearance of more evaluation studies seem to typify the recent literature as compared with the literature covered by the previous REVIEW. Evaluation studies are limited largely to specific aspects of guidance programs, a fact which evidences the need for studies that attempt to evaluate total programs as well as specific or isolated phases.

The amount of available material relating to description of guidance programs was so extensive that a great deal had to be omitted from the present review because of the lack of space. Consequently, a description of findings has been deleted, or minimized, in order to provide sufficient space for the listing of the available material.

Elementary-School Programs

A survey of the recent literature showed an increasing guidance consciousness on the part of persons interested in, or associated with, educational programs at the elementary-school level. Strang (78) stated that guidance in the elementary school is one of the three main pillars of education, the other two pillars being (a) child study, and (b) the curriculum. She stressed the role of the teacher as a guidance worker, and also the importance of having guidance specialists available. Baxter (11) stressed two aspects of guidance, corrective and preventive, and emphasized the role of the teacher as the key person. Berger (13) considered the guidance specialist as a service aide to the teacher. Smallenburg (74) listed 15 characteristics of a guidance program for the modern elementary school. The *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools* (67) developed by the office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, stressed the role of the teacher in utilizing effectively the information about the nature of her pupils.

Guidance specialists appear to be playing increasingly important roles in many of the elementary schools thruout the country. Nolan (62) reported the number of certain special guidance personnel that were found in school systems in 47 cities of 50,000 to 300,000 population in 25 states.

Boyd and Schwiering (16) made a survey of child guidance and remedial reading practices in 30 communities.

Recent literature seems to indicate that there is a growing demand for counseling services in many elementary schools. Cain (20) suggested one teacher to do counseling one-half of the teaching day in elementary schools with 500 ADA or less. Kitch (48) gave some indication of the status of certain guidance personnel in the elementary schools of California. Harris (38) studied the patterns of guidance organization in 11 large city school districts, and concluded that the predominating pattern of guidance in the elementary schools studied is built upon the classroom teacher functioning as a counselor with services of the guidance department available for special problems. Kawin (47) and Hufstедler (44) described statewide (Illinois) and also local child study programs.

Very little has been reported in the literature in regard to the evaluation of elementary-school guidance programs. Anderson and Zimmermann (2) reported data in regard to the evaluation of a specific child-study program.

Secondary-School Programs

Several local, regional, or statewide surveys have been conducted which were concerned with the characteristics or extent of guidance services in secondary schools. The Subcommittee on Guidance of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (64, 65, 66) prepared a self-study guide for the purpose of evaluating 15 important characteristics (both minimum and extended) of a high-school guidance program. Wimmer (85) contacted 447 secondary schools thruout the country to determine the kinds of guidance services available to students. Himes and Manley (41) described the kinds and extent of guidance programs in Negro secondary schools in southeastern United States. Nolan (62) investigated the administrative structures and personnel in the special services and guidance clinics in selected large cities. Lerner (52) described the placement programs of public schools in cities of 100,000 or more. Hartley (39) studied guidance practices in schools in the state of New York. Wrenn and Dugan (86) studied the guidance procedures of non-metropolitan high schools in Minnesota. Harris (38) surveyed 11 cities in California to study the basic philosophies of their guidance programs, the administrative organizations, and the characteristics of guidance personnel. The North Carolina Education Commission (63) reported the findings of its study of the guidance services in that state.

Descriptions of guidance programs or of aspects of programs in schools or school districts are quite common. Kitch (49) edited descriptions of programs in junior and senior high schools. Argetsinger (6) reported a cooperative project between a Veterans Administration Guidance Center and high-school guidance personnel in Minneapolis. Dingilian, MacDonald, and Steffire (28) described an advisement service available to

seniors in high schools of Los Angeles. Staton (77) outlined certain high-school guidance programs in Atlanta.

Trends in the development of guidance services are revealed in the fourth statewide survey of guidance practices in the four-year high schools of New Jersey (26, 87). A study by the Research Division of the National Education Association (59) revealed that guidance services are among the most rapidly expanding of the special services in 1598 schools.

Various characteristics of counselors in secondary schools, including their titles, training, and activities have been studied. Polmantiér (69) tabulated, by job titles, members of the National Vocational Guidance Association listed in the 1948-49 Yearbook who were employed in school systems composed of Grades I-XII. Froehlich (32) reported a survey of the enrolment, number of teachers, and number of guidance officers in the secondary schools in each state. Tompkins and Gaumnitz (81) summarized data on the number of guidance counselors in the secondary schools of the United States. The training and work experience of teachers in secondary schools in the North Central area were studied by Simmers and Davis (73). Goheen and Ohlsen (35) reported the training and duties of guidance personnel in schools in the state of Washington. Arnold (7) investigated the amount of time spent in various activities by counselors in the public schools of Ohio. In a study of Negro secondary schools in the southeastern states, Manley and Himes (54) found that two out of three teachers had no training in guidance, altho the majority of the schools used teachers in their guidance programs. Benz (12) constructed a test to investigate the attributes and practices of good high-school counselors.

The U. S. Office of Education (82) has published an experimental set of criteria in the form of checklists for the evaluation of guidance programs, and a pamphlet on how to use the criteria. Lovelass (53) has edited a list of criteria for the study of the guidance services of the school. The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (24) has included 16 pages of evaluative criteria for guidance services. The North Central Association (65) prepared a list of 15 criteria in the form of a self-study guide. Other evaluative instruments have been published by Moser (58) and Hines (42).

Lauck (50) found that twice as many nondelinquents as delinquents claim to have experienced formal guidance and concluded that vocational dissatisfaction in adulthood contributes to delinquency. Barabal and Brammer (10) used open-end interviewing methods with Stanford freshmen to evaluate their feelings about high-school guidance programs. Crosby (25) surveyed 10 selected California high schools to determine the costs of guidance programs.

Fowler and Nelson (31) found that high-school principals in central New York State were interested in extension services in guidance, while in Michigan, Erickson (30) discovered that school administrators want expert help in developing some 23 different aspects of guidance programs.

College Guidance Programs

College personnel programs were discussed in two recent publications by Brouwer (17) and Williamson (83). Russell (70) reported on the results of a study of guidance services in 43 Negro colleges. Gay and Gales (34) described a counseling service to deal with the academic problems of returning veterans in Wayne University. A report by the Subcommittee on Studies and Standards of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1) discussed minimum standards for student personnel services. A total college personnel program was presented by Glenn and Gobetz (36).

Numerous reports describe the various aspects of college personnel programs. Arbuckle (4) reported a study of vocational services in 15 colleges in Illinois. Bookman (15) investigated the freshman orientation techniques employed in 188 institutions. Meinecke (57) discussed the placement and follow-up services in junior colleges. Counseling programs were discussed by Sifferd (72), Jones (46), and by Smith and Lipsett (76). Hilliard (40) described special clinics, and Jenkins (45) enlarged on the use of records and forms.

Williamson (84) described student personnel programs in German universities. The guidance services offered to foreign students in American universities were described by Chen (23). Smith and Lipsett (75) summarized a technic of cooperative work as practiced at Rochester Institute of Technology as a means of providing practical and realistic guidance. The National Vocational Guidance Association, Ethical Practices Committee (60) listed agencies in the United States offering vocational counseling services. Carroll (21) completed a survey of types of personnel workers that were employed in liberal arts colleges.

Industry, Government Services, and Private Agency Programs

Marrow (55), discussing the role of group dynamics in industry, reported the studies made by Lewin on the personnel programs of the plant of the Harwood Manufacturing Company in the city of New York. Medvin (56) summarized the results of five occupational surveys of the U. S. Employment Service. The 1949 College Placement Program prepared by local Tennessee employment offices was outlined by Thompson and Goad (80). Arbuckle and Gordon (5) described the counseling programs in industry and the roles played by management, unions, and the community. The counseling methods employed in three industries are discussed by Green (37). The development and the integration of a guidance center with other community services was discussed by Deisenroth (27). Cabot (19) detailed the development of a records system in industry. An unusual article (3), author unknown, described a personnel program that failed.

Bisson (14) discussed the activity of the National Employment Services

Youth Guidance Councils thruout Canada. The guidance role of Britain's National Institute of Industrial Psychology was characterized by Chapman (22).

Veterans Administration Advisement Programs

Phillips and Mella (68) outlined a program of vocational rehabilitation at the Coatesville Veterans Administration Hospital at Coatesville, Pennsylvania. Barabal (9) presented an excellent guide to those planning to convert a Veterans Administration Center into a university or community counseling center. Entwisle (29) discussed a client evaluation of a Veterans Administration Guidance Service at Newark College. A number of studies of Veterans Administration programs were reported by Gaudet (33). He concluded that a substantial research program should be implemented to raise the program to its highest possible level of service efficiency. The contributions of the Veterans Administration to guidance programs were summarized by Scott (71). Leis (51) completed an experimental study in which he compared the vocational adjustment of advised and nonadvised veterans.

Military Service Programs

Three years of research by the test and research section of the Bureau of Naval Personnel were detailed and analyzed by Stuit (79). Newland (61) described the cadet personnel problems and procedures at West Point while Baier (8) sketched the work of the personnel research section of the Adjutant General's office on the problems of selecting and appraising West Point cadets. Hines (43) reported on an internship program thru which service personnel received specialized training in industry. Burbank (18) described the Army's Career Guidance Plan. Under this plan, the Army has undertaken the analysis and classification of jobs, plus counseling based on interviews and testing.

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CHAPTER IV

Appraisal of the Individual

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THE trends noted in the April 1948 REVIEW, on the whole, seem to have continued during the ensuing three-year period. A large number of studies of both old and new projective technics have appeared with greatest emphasis on the Rorschach and the Murray thematic apperception tests. Many of the studies involving these technics have sought to extend their applicability to selection and prediction in education and industry, but the conclusions have generally been negative or, at least, indecisive. There seems to have been a growing acceptance of the need for validation, but no really significant validation studies have been noted.

The *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* has continued to be the subject of many studies, but research of any significance involving other personality inventories has notably declined.

The trend noted three years ago toward the development of brief screening tests, particularly of abbreviated intelligence tests, was still in evidence. The main interest in these appeared to be in those clinical situations where emotional disturbance, illiteracy, or other conditions render longer tests inadvisable.

Interest in profile analysis, or in score configurations as a basis for insight into intra-individual variations was still evidenced in many studies. In a somewhat similar vein, there have been a number of systematic attempts to characterize job families or occupational groups by profiles or factor patterns.

Surprisingly, relatively few studies of the various batteries of differential aptitude tests have appeared. Whether this is a result of lack of interest or of the difficulties met in carrying out such studies is not certain. There has been a marked trend toward development or study of professional aptitude tests. Tests for selection of candidates in the fields of law, medicine, veterinary medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, actuarial science, and scientific research have been reported on. It is notable that at the professional level, there has not, thus far, been any single battery of tests which would provide differential diagnosis for the various professional fields analogous to the batteries under discussion and study at lower levels.

The large number of studies which have attempted to measure persistence, motivation, and other such traits is perhaps indicative of a feeling that further improvement of prediction of success in education depends largely on the successful appraisal of qualities other than intelligence and achievement.

To anyone familiar with the very extensive literature of the last three years in the field, it will be obvious that this review cannot provide a full

coverage. Neither must the selection of studies reported on be regarded as any more than a selection out of those coming to the authors' attention which seemed to illustrate trends noted earlier or to suggest other and less clearly defined trends. Volume I of the *Annual Review of Psychology* (109) is a noteworthy additional publication of this type. It contains several articles which, in toto, provide a somewhat more adequate coverage of research in this area than is possible in this single chapter.

Appraisal in Areas of Personality and Adjustment

Interview Information. Probably the most frequently used and best source of information about an individual is the interview. Kadis and Lazarsfield (65) used this method in studying the discrepancies between free recollections and images. Hall (53) views dreams as personal documents and projections which can be employed for the appraisal of the inner dynamics of personality. He analyzed series of dreams as a unified and coherent structure. Analysis was organized into (a) social agreement, (b) internal agreement, (c) external agreement, (d) agreement with the future, and (e) agreement with the past. Evidence for the validity of this breakdown was presented.

Empathy. Remmers (93), and Dymond (33) developed tests of empathy by determining how well individuals could predict how friends would react to questions of personality. Sheerer (103) studied the relationship between attitudes toward self and attitudes toward others. The study indicated that the individual's evaluation of himself and his worth as a person can be significantly altered by the therapeutic process and that the individual's evaluation of others, the degree of acceptance and respect he feels for them, is significantly related to his attitude toward himself. Powell (89) used: (a) the neurotic tendency and sociability scales on the Bernreuter as a self-rating scale, (b) dormitory counselors' judgments about the subjects in the study as an expert opinion, and (c) a sociometric test composed of six activities ranked by the subjects themselves to make comparisons of personal adjustment.

Social Status. Studies of the social status of the individual are becoming more frequent as counselors attempt to get the complete picture of the individual. Grossman and Wrighter (47) studied the relationship between a selection-rejection ratio and intelligence, social status, and personality among sixth-grade children. French (40) in studying social status found the social structure of the group and social status of the rater were important variables to be considered. He concluded (a) that individuals of high status are rated high by the group on traits which are presumably most valued socially, (b) that the sociometric status of the rater is in some cases a significant factor in his ratings of other individuals, and (c) that sociometric status is found to be a factor in some self-ratings when the effects of differences in ratings received from the group are

eliminated statistically. Young (125) used five objective tests of social status with elementary-school pupils. The tests included the *School Opinion Poll*, a citizenship test, the *Ohio Social Acceptance Scale*, the *Ohio Recognition Scale*, and a sociometry test consisting of seven potentials.

Questionnaires and Personal Documents

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The MMPI continued to lead all of the structured personality inventories in the amount of research reported. While most of the earlier research on this instrument was done in a hospital setting, later research has been conducted in a variety of situations. Hawkes (56) reported the use of the MMPI to screen college students for counseling purposes and found that those scoring two or more sigmas above the mean in any category had fewer appropriate interests and rated low in social participation. Wiener and Phillips (123) gave the MMPI to a group of clients and repeated it at two-month intervals during therapy and found that the changes in the inventory profile were in agreement with changes described by the client.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Martin (82), in his study of the Bernreuter, employed factor analysis and concluded that it did not distinguish between self-consciousness and introversion and that most of the measuring effectiveness could be found in the F_1 and F_2 scales. Donceel, Alimena, and Birch (29) used the Bernreuter to study the influence of prestige suggestion in answer to a personality inventory.

The Bell Adjustment Inventory. Brower and Sands (12) used this inventory to study the effect of personal adjustment on reaction time to emotionally charged words. Lovell, Laurie and Marvin (76) compared the effectiveness of the Bell with the *Minnesota Personality Scale* in screening students for counseling. Correlations with a specially constructed rating scale were higher for the Minnesota scale. It was also more effective in screening lower deviants.

Inter-Inventory Studies. Weinland (120) reported a study in which various inventories were administered to the same clients. When the inventories showed high correlation they tended to validate each other. This suggests that the use of ratings and personal inventories can be improved by constructing them in parallel to measure the same individuals in the same characteristics by different methods. Ellis (35) used direct and indirect phrasing on questions that were common to a number of inventories. He found that the order of presentation was important but that neither type was more effective than the other. Questions that distinguished best for children's groups dealt with school activities. Gough and others (46) studied the relationships between ethnic attitudes and certain personality factors. They concluded that personal adjustment should be a basis for developing acceptance of other ethnic groups.

Miscellaneous Documents. Kofka and Bolger (70) found future auto-

biographies valuable in the clinical study of individuals. They considered the clients structuralization of the future, the extent to which reality factors were taken into account, and the specific content of the material. Bugental and Zelen (16) studied self-concept with the W-A-Y technic and analyzed their replies along 17 categories. Using the question, "Who are you?" an investigation into the self-perception of subjects is reported. This allows a free field for the responses to be structured along lines most expressive of the client's needs and most meaningfully related to his current situation. First results indicated only the practicality of their categories. Symonds (113) asked 130 graduate students to write of experiences which gave them release of repressed emotions.

Projective Tests—The Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Tests. While many projective devices have been utilized during this period, the *Rorschach Test* and *Thematic Apperception Test* have continued to receive the most attention. The chief studies with the Rorschach dealt with refining the interpretation of results and its use for new purposes. Hertzman and Pearce (57) studied the meaning of the human figure in responses to the Rorschach cards. They found that with some people, tho not with all, the human responses represented keenly felt attitudes about one's self and environment. The frequency with which meaning emerges is roughly correlated with the number of human responses produced. Morris and Nicholas (83) used the Rorschach with children having primary behavior disorders and also with the children's parents. They discovered that on 15 of the 20 personality variables studied, there appeared to be evidence that significant homogeneity existed among all three members of the family group. Goldfarb (42) used this test with family-reared, institution-reared, and schizophrenic children. The institutional and schizophrenic children were similar in many signs but differed in others. The *Rorschach Test* confirmed that both groups were deficient in rational control, regard for reality, consistent drive for intellectual and social attainment, and emotional maturity. Prados and Fried (90) studied the personality structure of the older age groups. Sen (102) made a statistical study of the Rorschach using factor analysis and found that interpretation of responses indicative of intelligence and neurotic tendencies were confirmed but that color and movement seem to rest on preconceived hypotheses rather than on verifiable evidence.

The *Thematic Apperception Test* appeared to be more useful than the Rorschach in therapy. Bellak, Pasquarelli, and Brannerman (6) found that the stories told about TAT pictures can be used for association and interpretation in therapy. The test was particularly valuable in cases of general blocking, dearth of associations, resistance, protectiveness, and depression with little verbalization. Deabler (26) found the TAT helpful in letting the patient tell his story without identifying himself too closely. By withholding interpretation and reflecting attitudes and feelings the patients were helped to work out solutions to their problems. Gough (45) studied the frame of reference of clients reacting to the TAT and con-

firmed Deabler's findings for clients who did not know the purpose of the test. Rosenzweig (97) studied patients and their close kin with the TAT to discover complementary dynamics.

Other Projective and Expressive Devices. Calabresi (17) found the *Szondi Test* an excellent tool for the evaluation of the role of overt and repressed aggressiveness in the dynamics of personality deviations and mental disorders. Dorkey and Amen (30) used two new series of 14 pictures each. They found that there was a direct relationship between anxieties and the faces children chose for the faceless figures. The correlation of .59 between test results and teacher ratings indicated a positive relationship between test results and behavior patterns. Lehner and Silver (74), using the *Draw-a-Person Test*, found that clients assigned ages to the figures of their drawings equal approximately to their own age. After the age of 25 years they tended to make the figures younger. McCurdy (78), using the *Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test* with first-grade children in a series for a group and for individuals, found that ability to draw fluctuated in a manner similar to the Binet IQ. Buck (15) used the *House-Tree-Person Test*. He concluded that it gives clients both verbal and non-verbal expression, works well with withdrawn and low intelligence persons, and being unstructured compels projection. The drawing is frequently so emotion-producing that during it or afterwards subjects can verbalize hitherto suppressed material. The postdrawing interrogation system permits the subject to define, interpret, and associate concerning his drawn productions, and provides him also with an opportunity for further projection. Its scoring is not well objectified nor are the results identified with specific syndromes. Reichenberg-Hackett (92) designed a *Geosign Test* using a semistructured drawing situation. He found that the general design produced plus a written statement was useful for rough screening to find persons needing counseling. Falls and Blake (37) tried a statistical study of the *Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Test*. They analyzed four of the seven major components and correlated the scores with status measures of personality, scholastic aptitude, achievement, interests, and childhood socio-economic status. Their conclusion was that components of behavior measured by this test yield results consistent with theoretical expectancy.

Harrower (55) studied 500 psychiatric cases, for whom scores on most of the more common projective tests were available. She then asked them what was the most unpleasant thing they could think of and asked them to draw it either actually, schematically, or symbolically.

Abbreviated Scales, and Clinical Studies. A number of studies were reported on the use of abbreviated scales that can be used when time does not permit the use of longer tests and inventories. Altus (2) reported the use of a 13-point general information scale that correlates .73 with five verbal subtests of the Wechsler. He concluded that the validity of a test is not entirely a function of its length. Clark (21, 22) used the *Altus Thirty-Six Item Adjustment Test* in screening persons needing psychiatric

help. He found the test had a high correlation with the neurotic triad of the MMPI. This test was also valuable in screening illiterates and AWOL's. Hunt and French (62) studied the use of abbreviated scales from the Wechsler, Picture Completion, and McGill Picture and found them promising for identifying schizophrenics and mental defectives. Gough's (44) 21-item *Home Index Inventory*, used to determine socio-economic status, proved to have high reliability and good correlations with longer measures of the same trait.

Interest in analysis of the Wechsler-Bellevue subscores has continued in the last three years. Kogan (71) reported on the relationship between psychometric patterns and psychiatric diagnosis. Blake and McCarty (10) found that both the profile of the W-B and Allen's Brain Injured Patients differed significantly from the normal. The W-B profile did as good a job as Allen's Index. Shoben (104) tested the Rashkis-Welsh hypothesis that anxiety may be detected by means of various signs on the W-B and got negative results. Klein (68) used the multiple regression principle to increase the power of subscores of the W-B to separate schizophrenics from normals. He found that the weighted scores were much more predictive than unweighted ones. The best indication of schizophrenia was impairment in comprehension, picture arrangement, arithmetic, and digit symbol.

Appraisal in Education

Work on coordinated batteries of tests which appraise and differentiate a number of aptitudes continued. Guilford and Zimmerman (48) reported on the development of, and success with, an aptitude survey embracing seven primary aptitudes, with 13 more in prospect. Adequate norms and validation data have yet to be collected. Stuit (111), in an earlier issue of the REVIEW, summarized studies involving a number of batteries of this type.

Travers and Wallace (115) developed and studied an academic aptitude test for use at the graduate level. This test was patterned after the ACE, but was much more difficult than the former test. On the basis of their experience with this test they recommended the use of vocabulary and reasoning scores rather than the now almost traditional verbal and numerical.

The *Mooney Problem Checklist* was used by Gordon (43) to study problem changes of individuals over a 9-day period. Changes found were checked by independent evidence, thus throwing light on the sensitivity of the instrument.

A great deal of activity in the measurement of interests was found. Fowler (39) studied item response consistency for items of the activity preference type and found that the "most" response was remarkably stable regardless of order, number of possible responses, or interviewing time level. The "least" response was somewhat less consistent, altho lapse of

time changed these responses but little. Prestige of an occupation was found by Fehrer and Strupp (38) to be an insignificant factor in determining choice of occupational preference. Kreidt (72), Strong (110), and Kleist, Ritterhouse and Farnsworth (69), respectively, have prepared new keys for psychologists, accountants, and music teachers on the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*.

Heston (59) made a rather careful study of the relationship of the masculinity-femininity scales on the MMPI, Strong, Kuder, and Depauw adjustment inventories. The scales were about 80 percent successful in differentiating men from women. The MMPI was somewhat the best of the four.

Berdie (9) compared self-ratings to scores on the Kuder and the Strong. Correlations of about .50 between measured interests and estimates were found, with the Kuder showing a closer relationship to estimates than the Strong. These findings largely corroborate those of similar studies, including those which suggest that Kuder results can be faked easier than the Strong.

Problems of Prediction

The differential predictive value of the Q, L, and T scores and the ACE psychological examination was under investigation. Wallace (118) found the highest correlation to be .49 between English grades and combined Q and L scores, with part scores showing little differentiation. The general lack of differential prediction found in use of Q and L scores suggests that the recommendation of Travers and Wallace (115) earlier noted, bears some investigating.

There has been a great deal of activity in using test batteries to predict success in a variety of professional schools. Lord, Cowles, and Cynamon (75) found that the seven-test *Pre-Engineering Inventory* yielded correlations of .38 to .68 with first term engineering grades. Adams and Stuit (1) found that the *Iowa Legal Aptitude Test* (1946 revision) as a predictor was little better than the undergraduate point average, but recommended the use of the test with students whose undergraduate work was of doubtful quality. The three best subtests (reasoning, relevancy, information) gave a multiple correlation of .59 with grades. Barr (5) reviewed and summarized studies dealing with prediction of teaching efficiency. He found that multiple r 's of .70 and .80, resulting from the combination of subjective and objective measures were not uncommon. Studies in the medical aptitude field have centered around the *Professional Aptitude Test*. Stuit's (112) review and summary of this field placed quality and quantity of undergraduate work ahead of intelligence and aptitude tests for prediction of success in medical school. Remmers and Gage (94) obtained multiple correlation of .61 and .76 with grades in 40 schools of pharmacy, using a battery of tests including the ACE, *Purdue Mathematics Training Test*, *Purdue Physical Science Test*, and a *Cooperative English*

Test. They concluded that factorially pure tests are needed for greater validity.

The search for factors other than intelligence which might improve the prediction of college success has resulted in a multiplicity of studies. McCurdy (77), working with a sample of 30 women in a southern college, concludes that basal metabolism adds enough to grade prediction to be included as one of the probable determinants of the level of schoolwork. DiVesta, Woodruff, and Hestil (28) developed an Orientation inventory made up of a list of habits conducive to success. It was noted that students earning their own expenses were among the most highly motivated in college. French (40) obtained a measure of persistence by tempting students to give up early on a test composed of difficult number series problems. The quality thus measured showed some correlation with grades, but none with the tests themselves. Ostrom (87) found evidence supporting earlier suggestions that the OL score of the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* be used as a measure of survival power for prediction of college success. A study by Rausch (91) suggested that variability in performance may be an important factor in prognosis.

The use of projective technics in grade predictive studies has been a subject of considerable study. Osborne and Sanders (86) used the *Harrower-Erickson Multiple Choice Rorschach* to study the differences between college achievers and nonachievers. The results appeared too inconclusive for individual differentiation.

Hadley and Kennedy (50) studied the use of a sentence completion test and related the results to academic success. The method appeared to have some possibilities of assisting in the exploration of discrepancies between high tested intelligence and low achievement.

Hake and Ruedisili (52) studied the relationship of Kuder Preference Record scores and subject grades. They found, as have others, low correlations (.25 and under) and concluded that measured interests are a relatively minor factor in success.

Appraisal in Industry

Clark (24) investigated rather thoroly the interest patterns at the skilled trades level. He developed a vocational interest test with eight occupational keys including electrician, plumber, sheet metal worker, baker, milk-wagon driver, painters, and plasterers. Mosier and Kuder (84), using the *Preference Record—Personal*, investigated 20 occupational groups and found that 15 of the 20 differed on one or more scales. Diamond (27), having noted the increased attention being given to interest tests in industry, emphasized the danger in assuming that a high point in a profile necessarily suggests the appropriate field of specialization. He pointed out that the interpretation depends on the knowledge of the number and kind of people in the occupation. For an occupation with limited numbers, critical scores based on a general population may need to be high.

A number of articles have appeared which deal with the development of a selection battery for particular jobs; however, neither in technic nor in the nature of the job studied, do they appear to be of major significance. Bennett and Cruikshank (7) provided an excellent summary of tests and selection problems in the clerical field.

Ely, Kephart, and Tiffin (36) noted the growing use and significance of the *Ortho-Rater* as an industrial testing instrument. They provided norms for men and women industrial employees and also noted some sex differences. A number of articles on vision in relation to success in a variety of jobs suggest that there has been an increasing awareness of the significance of this factor.

Factor analysis has been increasingly used in industrial studies. Seashore and Dudek (100) analyzed seven tests which were all measures of visual-motor coordination and found that three factors rather than a single steadiness factor were necessary to explain the intercorrelations. Jasper (64) used factor analysis on 20 traits from the *Worker Characteristics Form* of the Occupational Analysis Division of USES. Six factors were found and identified as (a) strength, (b) intelligence, (c) inspection, (d) physically unpleasant working conditions, (e) manual dexterity, and (f) mechanical information. Coombs and Satter (25) computed correlations between jobs based on the common elements of two variables, using job analyses to provide the data. Factor analysis on 20 occupations resulted in finding a first order general factor and four common factors. This study was frankly experimental but the method appears to have possibilities for further development. Barnette (4) suggested another systematic approach to the study of occupational patterns employing either the DuMas (32) coefficient of profile similarity or rank difference correlations. These approaches offer possibility of establishing a limited number of occupational fields on the basis of worker characteristics.

A number of studies employing various personality inventories or projective technics have sought to find reliable personality patterns for job placement, but with uniformly inconclusive results. Ammons and others (3) reported findings using a projective test of vocational attitudes and information which employed plates portraying each occupation. The approach holds some promise of identifying a general attitude toward an occupational area.

Sisson (106) gave an excellent review of the forced choice technic used in the *New Army Rating*. The technic involves the selection by the rater of two responses from a set of four: one being the choice most like the person being rated, and the other the most unlike that person. The four responses include two favorable and two unfavorable responses with only one of each actually being scored. The method is difficult, laborious, and expensive to establish, but its apparent success in overcoming some of the weaknesses of the more common methods makes its further development highly desirable.

Rothe (98), studying the relation of merit ratings and length of service, found no fixed relationship but noted that high positive correlations frequently resulted from lack of cooperation, lack of confidence, or lack of understanding.

Selection and Appraisal of Personnel

This section deals primarily with studies dealing with the selection of executive, managerial, sales, and research personnel. Some overlapping between articles discussed in this and the previous section is inevitable. As in the case of the educational selection and prediction studies, there has been a marked attempt to develop means of study and appraisal of a wide variety of traits of possible significance in success. Less formal and more unstructured technics have received much attention.

Uhrbrock (116) reported on an extensive test development project designed to help in selecting men who have the characteristics of the best of college trained employees. A 100-item test was constructed having a correlation of .48 with order-of-merit rating by executives. Its use was felt to be primarily that of supplementing the judgment of the interviewer.

Husband (63) reviewed the extensive literature from 1935 dealing with the selection of salesmen. He concluded that the weighted scale of personal history data is the most valuable selection technic and that the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* also has some definite possibilities. He found that interviewing was not generally doing very well but called attention to McMurry's standardized interview as a way of improvement.

Richardson (95), using Strong's weighting chart, devised new scales for the Bernreuter for the purpose of appraising leadership. One scale, thus developed, differentiated between officeholders and nonofficeholders better than any of the Bernreuter scales, altho its correlation of the F1-C scale was greater than the reliability of the latter. Factors differentiating supervisors and nonsupervisors were apparently not as clearly defined. Browne (14) studied executive leadership in business employing the R, A, and D scales introduced by Stogdill and Shartle in their studies of naval leadership. Browne felt that the approach held more possibility of pointing up the importance of social and working relationships in group activities than the customary psychological trait testing method. Attempts to utilize projective technics are typified by Sinaiko's (105) study of the *Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Study* for selection of department store section managers. Extra-punitiveness and ego-defensive scores gave significant negative relationships.

A number of studies dealt with the possibilities of the interview. Wagner's (117) historical summary provided the best single recent discussion. Wagner noted that factors formerly ascertained by interviewing can be better determined by other methods, that the interview can be valid if all possible information is considered and weighted properly.

Kerr and Martin (66) reported on the more systematic use of application blanks and personal history data. They concurred with others in suggesting untapped possibilities in the use of such material as an addition to a predictive test battery. Mandell and Adams (81) found that a biographical information blank offered one of the best possibilities for selection of physical scientists.

Mandell (80) discussed the development and use of a formulation test, involving translation of verbal statements into algebraic equivalents, as a basis for differentiating between research and nonresearch personnel. The test functioned better than any other of an extensive battery investigated. Weislogel (121), using the Flanagan critical requirements approach, developed a test for selection of research personnel or of candidates for advanced training in science and engineering. The report outlined a procedure starting with carefully stated critical requirements in terms of actual behavior and proceeding thru an analysis of elements involved in this behavior to the writing of test items. The limitation to objective testing materials appears slightly unrealistic for adequate sampling of some of the behaviors. In any case, the critical requirements approach, which it exemplifies, appears to be equally applicable to the development of rating scales or more formal testing devices.

Dougan, Schiff, and Welch (31), using the *Welch Reorganization Test* which requires the subject to reorganize familiar ideas according to four different patterns, found a contingency coefficient of .60 between test scores and ratings (by manager and assistant manager) of the originality of department store personnel.

Theoretical Studies. The problem of interpreting test profiles has raised a number of technical or theoretical issues. Bennett and Doppelt (8), using as a criterion the proportion of differences in excess of chance, indicated a method of determining the differential power of two tests employed in combination. The technic is particularly valuable in selecting tests for a profile battery, but awareness of it is also helpful in interpretation. Whiteman (122) argued that the optimum and not the median is the best indicator of potentialities. Large deviations between such potentialities and functional abilities would signalize maladjustments. Altho Whiteman was primarily concerned with the Wechsler-Bellevue, his arguments and methods would seem to have much more general applicability. The work by DuMas (32) on the coefficient of profile similarity has been mentioned. Altho it has not been extensively used thus far, it seems that this coefficient, or some further development of it, has real possibilities in aiding in the study of complete profiles.

Holley and Buxton (60) utilized the Q-technic of Stephenson to analyze the beliefs revealed by a 100-item true-false test of misconceptions. The study was undertaken primarily as a methodological one and it well demonstrates the application of the inverted factor technic as a preliminary step in the selection of items for more elaborate factor analysis studies.

Cattell and others (19) suggested 25 distinct methods of objective

measurement of strength of motive, interest, or other dynamic traits. Twelve of these were tried out and the validity of a number of approaches demonstrated. There is an indication that satisfactory attitude measurement may require a battery involving four to six different measuring technics. Edwards and Kilpatrick (34) noted the difficulty involved in selecting the original set of items for scale analysis. A combination of the Thurstone, Likert, and Guttman methods was demonstrated to produce scales of a dozen or more items in which the various statements were still distinctive. The Thurstone approach provided items of suitable range, scoring by the Likert method plus item analysis eliminated nondiscriminating items, and scale analysis was applied to the remaining items.

The classification or categorization of problems is so intimately related to the problem of appraising the individual that the diagnostic categories suggested by Pepinsky (88) must be regarded as a contribution to be listed here. At least five of the eight categories appeared to help in consistent and accurate diagnosis. The real usefulness of these or other such categories in suggesting and selecting suitable therapy has not been investigated.

The observations of Rogers (96) have influenced and undoubtedly will influence thinking and research in the appraisal of individuals. Assuming, as he suggests, that (a) the perceptual field of the individual is the specific determinant of behavior, (b) integration and adjustment are internal conditions related to the degree of acceptance or nonacceptance of perceptions and the degree of organization of these perceptions into a consistent system, (c) the self under proper conditions is capable of reorganizing the perceptual field and thus altering behavior, the further development of individual appraisal procedures would mean minimizing of many of the elaborate psychometric procedures for valuing the individual according to our own frame of reference and a shift from focusing on the fixity of attributes and abilities to study of the extent to which alteration in these qualities is possible.

These viewpoints emphasized the need for a more dynamic concept of appraisal involving collection of evidence on change and possibility of change, rather than status determination. Appraisal technic should help the individual to see himself as he is and as others see him; they should assist him also in comparing what he hopes to become with what it is realistically possible for him to become. Satisfaction and success in the second type of appraisal may depend much more on the first type than our technics have allowed for or even permitted us to determine.

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CHAPTER V

Counseling

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AN EXAMINATION of the literature of the period under review indicates that the definition of counseling used in the last REVIEW on this topic has been accepted with slight modification. As used here it refers to the "face-to-face relationship in which a trained individual is consciously attempting by verbal means to assist another person to modify attitudes or other behavior with respect to educational, emotional, and vocational issues." If this summary were limited to completed reports of research in counseling it would be very brief. Most of the literature is still restricted to debates concerning theory and methods, descriptions of programs in operation, and general treatises on the counseling process. They have been noted in this chapter, however, because they contain hints, clues, and suggestions for research.

Eight textbooks purporting to describe the objectives and processes of counseling have been published during the period under review. Arbuckle (5) contrasted directive and nondirective procedures effectively thru sample interviews. Cassidy and Kozman (9) indicated the need for special procedures because of the changing status of women. Erickson (14) presented practical suggestions for conducting the counseling interview. Hamrin and Paulson (20) emphasized the eclectic approach previously urged by Rothney and Roens (39) and considered the interview as a learning situation. Robinson (34) presented many data from analysis of interviews. Rothney and Roens (39), considering the counselee in the dynamics of specific situations rather than in some general frame of reference, urged the eclectic approach and presented follow-up data. Williamson's (53) text was concerned primarily with the counseling of college students. These volumes reflected many viewpoints about theory and method but, except in rare instances, outlined in opinion much of what must still be established by research.

Reports of Research

Most research in counseling has been confined to the study of single variables treated by cross-sectional methods with limited populations. Two major exceptions are the studies directed by Rogers (37) at Chicago and the pioneer longitudinal study by Rothney and Roens (40) at Harvard.

Grummon and Gordon (18) described the facilities, training, service, and research possibilities of the Chicago Counseling Center and concluded that the successful work there could be attributed to the consistency of

application of nondirective counseling. Sheerer (44) found that counselee's evaluation of themselves and of their worth as persons could be changed significantly by therapy. Stock (45) showed, by study of the statements of 10 clients, that as their feelings about themselves changed, their feelings about others changed in similar directions. Haigh (19) studied the correlation between defensive behavior expressed in counseling and elsewhere. Altho some clients showed an increase in defensiveness, most showed a decrease. Hoffman (23) classified "reported past behavior" and "reported planned behavior" into different levels of maturity and found that there was little improvement in maturity from first to the last third of the therapy. Differences in maturity between the five most and five least successfully treated cases were statistically significant. All of these Chicago studies revealed that there were still problems which clinicians have not yet solved. When they treat their counsees fully they do not have time to work with enough cases to satisfy the statisticians. When they work with a large number of cases they do not have time to treat them fully enough from the clinical point of view.

The only study of counseling reported during the period under review which used longitudinal and follow-up methods with a statistically adequate population was that by Rothney and Roens (40). Altho they worked with 825 subjects for various lengths of time during the course of their study, they attempted evaluation of continuous counseling of only those 129 subjects who had been counseled for the five years in which they attended Grades VIII to XII in a typical high school. Evaluation of counseling was made by comparing the high-school and post-high-school performances of the counseled subjects with control group students who had been matched on eight variables. Since both experimental and control groups attended the same school, other variables operated during the study, but results were interpreted only in terms of the effects of the individual counseling provided. The authors reported: (a) significant differences between the experimental and control groups of students in terms of academic achievement while in high school; (b) more employment among noncollege guided groups; (c) more definiteness concerning vocational plans and means of attaining them; (d) better adjustment on the job or in post-high-school training; (e) greater awareness of educational problems; and (f) better information on how to meet problems and where to seek advice. They concluded that counseling of youth can contribute significantly to the accomplishment of the objectives of the secondary school. President Conant of Harvard contributed a penetrating analysis of counseling problems to the report which suggests the need of additional research.

Directive Versus Nondirective Counseling

The pendulum which had swung so vigorously toward nondirective counseling during the past 10 years seems now to be swinging back to

near center. Rogers (36, 38) reiterated the values of nondirective therapy and extended the theory to include treatment for intergroup tensions. Rogers also summarized the results of a study of 37 client evaluations of nondirective psychotherapy by Lipkin (28). He suggested that clients were taking responsibility for their actions, that they were getting a clearer understanding of themselves, and that other evidence suggested that client's evaluations were consistent with the theory of nondirective counseling. Miller (30) obtained from four judges the classifications of responses in directive and nondirective interviews as evidence of counselors' accepting, supporting, denying, or neutral attitudes toward clients' positions. Counselors who used directive methods were characterized by accepting, rather than neutral attitudes. Cowen and Combs (11) suggested that validation of results of nondirective counseling cannot be determined immediately after completing therapy and they followed up 32 subjects for an average of 20 months following treatment. Sixty percent said that treatment gains were almost complete while 90 percent claimed to have received help. Prognoses before therapy checked with follow-up evaluation in 60 percent of the cases.

Hardy (21) found no significant relationship between dominance and nondirectiveness in counseling. Carr's (8) attempt to evaluate nondirective therapy by giving the Rorschach before and after therapy showed no consistent qualitative or quantitative differences. Carnes and Robinson (7) used a ratio of client talk to total talk in 78 interviews with college students in a how-to-study course. They found, by computing the correlation between their ratios and effectiveness in counseling as measured by counselee insight, working relationship, and client responsibility for progress of the interview, that the ratio of client talk cannot be used as a criterion of counseling effectiveness. Ellis (13) suggested that nondirective counseling is an old and familiar concept rather than a new viewpoint. Thorne (48) indicated that directive therapy operates in a specific manner to facilitate insight and does not violate the client-centered principle. Thorne (49) further proposed that it was time to abandon attempts to establish schools or systems in favor of the genuinely eclectic approach. Hunt (25) questioned the use of nondirective therapy and decried the lack of training in diagnosis for nondirective therapists. The last review on counseling indicated that it was time to take stock of the values of different methods. This caution should be repeated here. A start has been made.

Research Problems and Methods

Examination of research studies in counseling, directed particularly toward the variables which researchers must consider, suggests that there is need for studies which will outline designs for further experimentation. The following studies point up some of these needs. Grant and Grant (17)

examined the problems of "therapy readiness" in a preliminary way. Abt (1) described a method of quantifying interview material by forming hypotheses, setting up interviews to test them, and analyzing them separately according to a checklist. Kaufman and Raimy (26) asked three judges to score 17 interviews for the Discomfort-Relief Quotient of Dollard and Mowrer and three other judges to score the interviews to get a quotient for positive, negative, or ambivalent self-reference. Both methods gave indications of personality changes. The first quotient stressed reduction of tensions while the latter stressed the self-concept. Raimy (33) quantified analyses of changes in self-approval in complete series of interviews of 14 college students. In successful cases there was change from ambivalence or self-disapproval to self-approval. He concluded that his findings were in line with the hypothesis that successful counseling involves essentially a change in clients' self-concepts. Pepinsky (31) studied the use of diagnostic categories in counseling and found, tentatively, that five of eight categories (lack of assurance, lack of information, lack of skill, interpersonal self-conflict, and intrapersonal self-conflict), led to consistent and accurate diagnosis. Pepinsky (32) also described a method of applying informal projective methods to the interview by directing the clients' attention to lithographs in the manner of the Rorschach. Horrocks and Nagy (24) used an artificial case study with groups of varying degrees of education and experience to show that diagnosis and therapy are separate abilities.

Evaluation of Counseling

Several authors have pointed out the difficulties researchers meet when they attempt to evaluate the counseling process. Hathaway (22) indicated that there are problems of determining *when* counseling becomes therapy, *what* measures can be used to determine changes in behavior, and *how* to determine differences between the effects of common intrapersonal and counseling relationships. Shaffer (43) commented that psychotherapy gives significant help to only 40 to 60 percent of the clients and suggested that earlier and even current explanations of psychotherapy are not adequate for the needs of research, discovery, and development. Roe (35) suggested that personality must become more related to clinical practice. Williamson (54) presented six criteria of good and bad counseling. Froelich (16) studied the analysis of case folder data and the follow-up methods of evaluation. Travers (50) reviewed critically the common technics for evaluating counseling and suggested that the outcomes should be measured in terms of criteria similar to those noted by Williamson (54). Stromswold and Wrenn (47) defined five diagnostic categories of scholastic adjustment on which counseling could be done and on which the effectiveness of counseling could be measured.

As with most studies in psychology the availability of subjects seems

to have determined their selection. College students have been used largely in the studies reported above and in the following evaluations of counseling. Webb (52) showed that 241 college students believed that vocational counseling had been of some help. Aldrich (3) revealed that college girls who had received social counseling exceeded others in: (a) number of contacts with the counseling bureau; (b) number of activities, committees, and offices; (c) percentage graduate; and (d) less severe diagnosis for those who visited a mental hygiene clinic. Stone (46) found that, unless students enrolled in a vocational orientation course were given individual counseling, the courses were not helpful. The courses served as preparation for individual counseling and reduced the time necessary for it. Kirchheimer (27) showed that veterans in college who had been counseled concerning major subjects improved their grade-point averages. Seeman (42) found no relationship between counseling methods and client reaction to counseling. Reactions were determined by personal qualities of counselors such as warmth and interest.

In addition to the evaluation of high-school counseling reported by Rothney and Roens (40) above, two attempts at that level have been reported. Young (57) described the four-year research program of the Evanston Township (Illinois) High School and Barber (6), who made a follow-up study of the graduates of East Aurora (New York) High School, reported that the school had been improved thru the work of the counselors.

Of evaluation studies in other than academic situations the Veterans Administration reports are most common. Failor and Isaacson (15) obtained questionnaire responses of veterans who were counseled in 1945-47. They felt that the counseling was ably and professionally handled and of considerable value to them. A report of a questionnaire study made by the Veterans Administration (51) indicated that 71 to 84 percent of the veterans were satisfied with counseling received and a significant relationship between success in training and work in the employment objective selected during counseling was found.

Probable Trends

Several symposia and individual reports suggested directly, or by implication, the research studies which must be undertaken. Donahue (12) compiled the writings of 15 authors prominent in the field of guidance and measurement and noted the trends in student personnel work with respect to programs and research. Lloyd-Jones (29) listed 15 fundamental questions with respect to a coordinated counseling program dealing with every child of every age level as a whole person. Aiken (2) listed the problems of definition of counseling, its processes, its staff, and the need for its evaluation as those in which research is needed. Sanford (41), summarizing a symposium on psychotherapy and counseling, indicated

that the two basic questions for which answers are needed are those concerning the nature of the changes that take place during therapy and the conditions under which they are likely to occur.

One report which warrants special attention is that of Corey (10) on two kinds of research. He described the difference between the "fundamental" researcher who searches for the ultimate truth and the "action" researcher who is interested primarily in the improvement of current educational practices. Since, as Wright and Darley (56) have indicated, there is a great increase in the demand for counseling and since, as they have pointed out, an extensive literature on counseling is developing which is not based on research, there is need for all counselors to consider Corey's admonition to get more "action" in research.

Rothney and Roens (39) suggested in 1949 that counseling was a disordered field and that its current status depended on faith rather than upon demonstrated accomplishment. The willingness of its practitioners to embark upon a course of thoro self-analysis and self-appraisal will determine its future. There appears to be no need currently to change that opinion.

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CHAPTER VI

Guidance Thru Groups

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A RATHER large number of descriptive accounts of group-guidance practices were published during the past three-year period covered by this chapter. In addition, a limited number of reports on research and projects or experiments were subjected to some form of evaluation in this summary.

The focus in this chapter is upon reports on research and experimental projects. Studies of the nature of groups, of cultural relations, and of group therapy with the mentally or physically handicapped are not included.

Trends and General Developments

Provision for the Service. Surveys (12, 53, 55) showed that there was little change in the provision made for group guidance in the schools. Homerooms, student activities, special classes, conferences, and visits were the means most commonly provided. The homeroom was usually listed as a means for offering educational and vocational guidance, but analysis showed that it frequently served administrative rather than guidance purposes. The degree of participation in student activities was found to be generally low. Membership in a minority group or in a low socioeconomic group was shown to limit opportunities for participation (18, 37, 38). Thompson (48) found in a study of a residence-hall activity program that (a) effectiveness of an activity increased with increase in student responsibility; (b) much activity was developed and controlled by students which was not initiated by them; and (c) in general, the amount of responsibility shown was less than seemed consistent with educational objectives. Three factors seemed to make the activity program effective for social learning: (a) delegation of responsibility to students, (b) provision for each student to have as many varied social experiences as possible, and (c) a high degree of esprit de corps.

Problems of Students. Data from checklists, questionnaires, and interviews showed that the problems with which students wanted help were the same as in previous years: matters of vocation, adjustment to school or college, interpersonal relations, especially with regard to home-and-family relations and boy-and-girl relations; marriage; and recreation (9, 23, 28, 36, 51). The responses of some 1560 students summarized in one study revealed that these problems were not discussed in the schoolroom or were discussed only superficially (9).

The School Culture. The American Council on Education intergroup education project (37) revealed the confusion of values and standards

present in most school societies and the results of the maze of divergent expectations in the way of selective and undesirable learning. Kelley (27) made a careful study of (a) the nature of the college society; (b) the influence upon it of the larger culture; (c) the interpersonal and inter-group relations on the college campus; (d) the parts played by different groups; and (e) in particular, the nature and function of the mores as social controls and the changing of college mores, especially as a result of veteran enrolment. The implications of campus mores for administrators and guidance workers were emphasized. Smucker (42) investigated the campus clique as an agency of socialization and found that the clique served a number of useful functions such as aiding adjustment to college life and being a means to secondary as well as primary contacts. Fults (16) and Skubic (39) showed how individual and group changes followed adoption of classroom technics that fostered good human relations and aided the development of improved social attitudes.

School Camps. Promising experiments were organized in Michigan and California to determine the value of school camps for pupil education and teacher training (41, 44). Things that could be taught naturally and effectively outdoors were the things emphasized. Some experimental camps were established as work-experience camps for senior high-school students but were similar to other school camps in objectives and basic patterns. The experimental use of one summer camp for delinquents and predelinquents showed that such camps had little value as isolated experiences but had considerable value as part of the year-round program when under the direction of professionally trained workers (47).

Training of Group Workers. Reports indicated an increased recognition of the need for group workers who not only qualify with regard to personal qualities but who also have the specialized knowledge and skills gained thru intensive training in group work and case work (11, 29). Certain recent textbooks for group workers brought out the importance of evaluation and included material, such as case studies of groups and transcriptions of group sessions, helpful in training workers in the analysis of the group process and in the evaluation of particular technics.

Group Technics

Basing his outline on a review of the literature, Super (45) offered a fourfold classification of group technics. He classified them according to purpose as orientation activities and therapeutic activities and according to methods as activity methods and discussion methods. He examined the value of these technics and the place of group guidance in the total program of personnel services.

Discussion. The technic most frequently reported was discussion. Schools participating in the Detroit Citizenship Education Study worked with small discussion groups in training pupils in problem-solving (10). Discussions both at home and at school were used to stimulate registering

and voting (50). A number of progress reports were made on the experiments of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, organized to study the dynamics of the adult-discussion group, the relationship of the individual to such a group, and the relationship of the group to the larger social environments of an organization and a community (6, 7, 14, 49). The reports presented findings regarding the roles of group members, leadership, and evaluation procedures. These reports have aroused some controversy and have caused some protests, especially against the terminology; but there is definite evidence that they have also stimulated efforts to improve conference and committee work with youth as well as adults (4). One report that grew out of the clinic work on leadership in large meetings is of significance to workers who use large meetings for group-guidance purposes. This report analyzed the basic weaknesses of large meetings as ordinarily conducted and described various technics found useful for increasing the effectiveness of large meetings (5).

Sociometric Technics. The use of sociometric technics in schools was stimulated by the American Council on Education project in intergroup education (26, 46) which helped to evaluate sociometry as a means to the over-all assessment of groups. Sociometric tests and sociograms, sociometric interviews, open questions, and open themes were used in diagnosing interpersonal relations and studying the association patterns in school groups. These technics proved effective in promoting emotional development and social adjustment on the part of pupils. Pepinsky (33) explored the meaning of "validity" and "reliability" as applied to sociometric tests and concluded that the traditional methods used in determining validity and reliability of such instruments as tests and rating scales could not be applied to sociometric tests and that there is need for systematic development of new concepts applicable to the field of sociometry.

Psychodrama, Sociodrama, Role-playing. The literature indicated extensive use of these technics in the classroom as well as in the special-group situation (17). Jennings (25) explained the principles of the sociodrama derived from Moreno's experimental work and outlined the method as used in the schoolroom. She stressed the importance of a graduated sequence of situations, of respect for the individual's areas of reticence, of the warming-up period, and of the use of the social-laboratory conditions potentially present in every classroom.

Leadership

Stodgill (43) surveyed studies undertaken to determine the personal traits of leaders. Zeleny (56) in his review of the research on leadership directed attention to a trend from study of the physical characteristics and personality traits of leaders to study of leaders in action. This trend is well illustrated in the revised and enlarged edition of Jennings' study

of leadership (24). She found that leaders and isolates were alike in many ways with regard to physical appearance and personal qualities and that they differed mainly in their manner of interacting with others. The leaders were able to elicit positive reactions from others, whereas isolates showed a marked incapacity for establishing rapport with others. Both leadership and isolation were found indigenous to the specific social situation with the result that the leader in one community or situation might not become the leader in another.

Reports on the American Council on Education project in intergroup education (46) revealed the need for giving all pupils training in some aspect of leadership. The project staff found that some pupils lost all chance at such training because of their background and that most pupils did not understand leadership. The project staff found also that while pupils were permitted to choose leaders they were not assisted in analyzing the leaders' job and that they accordingly received little training in the other skills needed for group participation. Administrators and teachers usually held narrow concepts regarding the activities in which students could exercise authority. Suggestions offered for improving training of pupils in leadership included: (a) development of concepts of leadership which include concern for good human relations, (b) training of students in the analysis of offices and of group procedures, and (c) enlarging the range of leadership activities in which pupils have a chance to develop joint purposes with respect to what they want and consider important.

Deutsch (14) reported a study of the personalities and activities of discussion-group leaders. The personalities of the leaders were studied thru clinical technics. The leaders were observed as they functioned in group situations and were interviewed to determine the nature of their values and ideologies. Like Jennings, Deutsch found leadership to be the function of many interdependent variables, occurring in many situations and determined by both the personal characteristics of the leader and the nature of the particular environment in which he functioned.

As part of a study to determine the group origins of student leaders, Williamson (52) investigated the extent to which fraternity and sorority members dominated the most important campus positions during a three-year period at the University of Minnesota. The investigation showed a marked over-representation of fraternal groups in the offices studied.

Hostetter and McDaniel (22) drew a picture of the average junior high-school leader on the basis of data collected thru interviews and questionnaires. They, too, found student leaders not significantly different from their fellows with respect to intelligence and appearance.

Intergroup Work

Increased concern about prejudice, group conflicts, and juvenile delinquency was reflected in increased effort toward guidance in interpersonal and intergroup relations. Two projects reported are of considerable

significance for group workers in education: (a) the Project of Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools sponsored by the American Council on Education (26, 46) and (b) the Central Harlem Street Clubs Project of the Welfare Council of New York City (11). Both projects were experimental programs lasting almost three years, and both had research programs that ran concurrently with field operations. The ACE experiment in intergroup education was the joint undertaking of project staff and teachers in 18 cooperating schools. The general objective was to show the important part that school life plays in what young people learn about group living and to develop new materials, new techniques, and new ways of mobilizing school-community resources for improving human relations and fostering intergroup understanding.

In the Central Harlem Street Clubs Project various agencies worked with the project staff in an experimental program with four teen-age gangs of boys and one group of girls. The workers found the members of the gangs hostile and aggressive but no different from members of other teen-age groups with regard to need for recognition, achievement, affection, and understanding. The gang was the most important influence in the lives of most members. Three stages were described in the development of the work with the gang members: (a) overcoming the members' distrust and gaining acceptance, (b) stimulating changes in attitudes and behavior, and (c) closing relationships. And, as in counseling, the stages overlapped and were interdependent. More success was had in influencing patterns of aggression than patterns of escape. With a few exceptions basic changes in the boys' ideology were not achieved.

Some projects for improving intergroup relations have been initiated by schools. Against a background of urban deterioration and social disorganization a California school set up a program to meet the needs of youth and adults in its service area who were not associated with any agency program (19). The project developed from a school canteen into a community cooperative recreation center with a 12-month program in which 15 community organizations participated. Success was attributed to such factors as democratic participation, easy membership requirements, adequate supervision, and sympathetic police protection.

Wittenberg (54) described a neighborhood organization which contributed to both individual and group growth. In an urban slum area four blocks were organized with two sides of the street being considered a block. The common interest differed from block to block but, in the main, was concerned with gang warfare, prostitution, child care, housing violations, and recreation. Directing efforts toward modification of the environment served to decrease hostilities and frustrations.

Group Therapy

Hobbs (20) stressed the need for greater use of group therapeutic methods because of the small number of trained workers available to aid

the great number of persons needing their services. Super (45) pointed out that increased use of group therapeutic procedures has also been made necessary by the failure of group orientation methods and that the failure is due in part to the fact that group workers charged with orientation quite often are teachers converted into counselors who make group guidance synonymous with teaching. Other reports indicated that acceptance was being gained for Moreno's views that group therapeutic procedures should not be considered as expedients or substitutes for individual therapy but as treatments in their own rights yielding values not always obtainable thru individual therapy (40). Redl (35) stressed the point that use of the term "group therapy" requires recognition of a psychology of group life.

Methods and technics were described in a number of reports which indicated general recognition that positive results can be produced by different procedures and that the basic dynamics are similar in all forms of group therapy (13, 30, 31, 32, 34, 40). Common factors underlying success in the use of various technics were held to be: (a) the worker's acceptance of group members and confidence in their ability to draw on their own capacities for growth, (b) a permissive atmosphere, and (c) group support. The results of group therapy were described as supportive, cathartic, insightful, and socializing.

Peres (34) found that the benefited members of one group showed a therapeutic pattern similar to that in nondirective individual therapy. Using data from six recorded group sessions and the subjective evaluation of responses to a questionnaire study made three months after completion of therapy, he tried to determine the relation between verbal expression of members during the group sessions and the value received from such therapy. His study revealed decided differences in patterns of conversation for the benefited and the nonbenefited, and furthermore showed that the value of the group work increased for the benefited members after therapy ended. Malone (31) in an analysis of the dynamics of group psychotherapy based on observations in a 12-month experimental program showed that success varied with the degree of group solidarity and the rate of social interaction and that it was most likely to be attained when group sentiment, commonalty of interests and of objectives, intergroup mobility, and democratic organization were strong.

Luchins (30) brought out the need for controlled experimental methods in group therapy in order to gain clarification regarding actual outcomes, relative effectiveness of group therapy in comparison with individual therapy, and functions of the group. He described four methods used in two army hospitals for controlling the program while in progress. Pepinsky (32) stated that there is need for research in the study of outcomes rather than in the study of the process of therapy and described the experimental approach used in group counseling at a state college. The literature in general indicated that more research needs to be done

with regard to all phases before final conclusions can be drawn about the nature of the therapeutic process or the efficacy of particular methods.

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CHAPTER VII

Educational and Vocational Information

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INVESTIGATIONS in the area of educational and vocational information originated in so many different sources that only a few could be included in this brief chapter. Therefore, those studies having national implications were selected. Most such studies were made in governmental agencies equipped with staffs and facilities to collect extensive data, make tabulations, and interpret the findings. A few other researches were included because they contributed specifically to certain topics.

Educational Information

Educational Patterns. The Bureau of the Census revealed (16) that the general educational pattern among adults proves the historical trend toward more and more schooling. Adults at successively younger ages have received a higher level of education. Persons 25 years of age or over were considered to have completed their formal schooling. With an increase of age the median number of years of school completed was progressively lower. For example, persons 25 to 29 years old attained 12.0 years of school. This was interpreted as four years of high school. Persons 65 years of age and over completed only 7.7 years of school, or somewhat less than eight years of elementary school. At each age level, females had a slightly higher median of attainment than males.

"Functional illiteracy" continued to decline as was evident from the decrease in the number who had completed less than five grades of school—from almost 1,500,000 in 1940 to less than a million in 1947. Most of the 1940 "illiterates" were not in school in 1947. These probably represented the noneducable segment of the population such as mental defectives.

In October 1949, according to the Bureau of the Census (13), a total of 28.7 million boys and girls five to 24 years old were enrolled in school:

	Age	Number enrolled	Percent of each age group
	5 years	618,000	22%
	6 years	2,869,000	95
	7-9 years	7,528,000	99
	10-13 years	8,846,000	99
	14 and 15 years	3,922,000	94
	16 and 17 years	2,856,000	70
	18 and 19 years	1,028,000	25
	20-24 years	1,041,000	9
Total	5-24 years	28,707,000	62

There were 700,000 more persons five to 24 years old enrolled in school than in October 1948. The highest enrolment was in the seven thru 13-year-old group with 99 percent enrolled in school. This was attributed largely to the fact that these ages are included under the compulsory school attendance laws in practically all states. The Navy (59) pointed out the advantages of young people's staying in high school, graduating and going on to college if they can, because experience has shown that young people will serve themselves and their country better by obtaining the maximum of educational background before launching upon their life work.

The Bureau of the Census also found (19) that in 1949 one in every six students of high-school age was working outside of school hours. At the beginning of the school year in October 1949, 1,200,000 boys and girls 14 thru 17 years old were both enrolled in school and employed mostly at part-time jobs, and another 100,000 were looking for work. In 1940, when employment opportunities for inexperienced minors were relatively scarce, only 300,000 such students were in the labor force. In interpreting the figures the Bureau of the Census pointed out that the rise over the past decade in the proportion of young students in the labor force was significant because it marked a sharp reversal in the historic downward trend in the labor-force participation of youth. Of the students of college age, about 29 percent of the 18- thru 24-year-olds were in the labor force in October 1949, an increase of 9 percent over 1940. About nine-tenths of the 14- thru 17-year-olds outside the labor force were attending school; only half of those in the labor force were also students.

Drop-outs. Gaumnitz and Thompkins (4) discovered that high schools fall far short of their announced goal of serving *all* youth. More than half of all youth either did not enter high school or dropped out before graduation. Two out of five dropped out *after* entering high school. The holding power of the larger schools was no greater than that of the smaller ones.

Dillon (2) studied 1171 school leavers and found that of the 16-year-olds 212 dropped out in the ninth grade and 227 in the tenth grade. He also checked the frequency of reasons given by 957 youths as of first importance in the decision to leave school: (a) preferred work to school—36 percent; (b) needed money to buy clothes and help at home—15 percent; (c) was not interested in schoolwork—11 percent; (d) could not learn and was discouraged—7 percent; (e) was failing and did not want to repeat grade—6 percent; (f) wanted spending money—6 percent; (g) disliked a certain teacher—5 percent; (h) ill health—5 percent; (i) disliked a certain subject—3 percent; (j) friends had left school—3 percent; (k) parents wanted youth to leave school—2 percent; (l) could learn more out of school than in school—1 percent. These students also made certain pertinent suggestions to school administrators to encourage potential drop-outs to remain in school: (a) provide work experi-

ence—23 percent; (b) provide vocational instruction—15 percent; (c) provide services of a guidance counselor—12 percent; (d) more personal contact with teachers—11 percent; (e) more participation in school activities—11 percent; (f) more opportunity to change courses—11 percent.

In studying 524 out-of-school youth in Louisville, Kentucky, Johnson and Legg (9) found that 440 had not completed high school because of: (a) dissatisfaction with school—48 percent; (b) economic need—19 percent; (c) lure of a job—12 percent; (d) marriage—7 percent; and (e) other causes—15 percent. Many complained of failing grades and not liking the courses or the teachers.

College Enrolments and Costs. In the fall of 1950, Story (11) found that 2,295,000 resident students were enrolled in 1888 colleges and universities. This figure represented a 9.3 percent loss of men students over the previous year, and a 0.2 percent loss of women students. With respect to veterans only, there were 575,000 veterans enrolled in the colleges in 1950-51 representing a loss of 32.9 percent over the previous year when 856,000 veterans were enrolled.

College costs have zoomed to new heights, but no over-all recent study has been made. An inspection of the Fiftieth Annual Report on Medical Education (1), however, revealed the resident tuition fees in the 72 medical schools and seven schools of the basic medical sciences in 1950-51. Seventy-six schools furnished data for the report and estimated the financial outlays experienced by their students during one academic year for tuition, fees, books, equipment, travel, and all essential costs. A student in medical school for a single year of nine months paid a median cost of \$1473 with a range from \$567 to \$2252. Tuition fees alone ranged from \$97 to \$867 with a median of \$600 compared with a \$577 median for the previous year.

Vocational Information

Occupational Research. In the past three years occupational research provided a wealth of vocational information. The findings were especially useful at all educational levels for students who use such materials for guidance purposes, and particularly important for counselors in their work with high-school and college students. In the training of counselors in the colleges and universities it was unfortunate that the results of such extensive and expensive researches did not find wider use. According to Froehlich and Spivey (3) only 100 institutions out of 930 colleges and universities offering guidance courses provided occupations courses for school counselors. Obviously counselors trained in these institutions were left to their own devices when it came to untangling and organizing the occupational data that were available to them. One reason for omitting such courses may have been the lack of qualified individuals prepared to teach occupations courses. As an immediate aid in promoting occupa-

tions courses at the college level, a special committee prepared a report (60) on the goals of counselor preparation in the occupational area.

Occupational Census. In preparing to take the 1950 census, the Bureau of the Census classified occupations and issued a useful alphabetical index of occupations and industries (21). Early in 1950 the census enumerators questioned persons in the labor force about their occupations. Data were not available in 1950, but summary figures for 11 major occupational groups will be released in 1951 and detailed tabulations will probably be delayed until 1952. Meantime the Bureau of the Census released a number of sample studies and also a census of manufactures (22, 23).

Unemployment. In its annual report of the labor force for 1949, the Bureau of the Census pointed out (17) certain major developments. High levels of employment generally prevailed during 1949 with a total civilian employment average of 68,700,000 during the year. Unemployment was substantially above the 1947 and 1948 levels as job opportunities declined in 1949 while the labor force continued to expand. Curtailed job opportunities in nonagricultural industries accounted for practically all of the decline in employment from the 1948 level. Agricultural employment was at about the same level during 1949 as in 1948. Altho employment dropped by only 1 percent, man-hours worked by the labor force generally in 1949 were about 2.5 percent under the 1948 total.

Older Workers. In the total population (148,720,000) residing in the continental United States on July 1, 1949, the Bureau of the Census estimated (15) that a total of 11,270,000 persons were 65 years old and over. The rapid increase in the number of the aged in recent decades has resulted in widespread interest in the problems of that group. The trend toward a larger number of older persons was credited to increases in the number of births in the nineteenth century, to lowered mortality rates resulting from better medical care and a higher standard of living, and to a generally increasing volume of immigration up to World War I.

Internal Migration. For the year ended April 1949, the Bureau of the Census studied internal migration (12) in the United States. About one out of every five persons (28,000,000) was living in a different house from the one he had lived in a year earlier. Nineteen million had moved within a county. Four million had changed their county of residence within a state. Another 4,000,000 had moved from one state to another. Half a million had been living abroad a year earlier. Three-fourths of the population remained in their respective states and found employment there. Counselors used such findings to show that it is not invariably necessary for young people to go far away from home to make a living.

Incomes. Income studies about occupations in recent years have been most difficult to conduct because of such variables as inflation, general wage increases, and the fluctuation in real money value. In 1948 the Bureau of the Census studied and summarized the incomes of families and persons in the United States (20). The study was especially welcome to those who needed significant figures as a basis for reckoning present

and future needs. An estimated distribution of persons 14 years of age and over by annual wage or salary income, by sex, for the United States, urban and rural, in 1948 was presented.

For those with incomes of \$5000 and over in 1948, the same study showed that the following five groups accounted for 86 percent of the heads of families: (a) proprietors, managers, and officials (25 percent); (b) craftsmen, foremen (20 percent); (c) operatives (15 percent); (d) clerical, sales, and kindred workers (14 percent); and (e) professional and semiprofessional workers (12 percent).

Manufacturing. The *Census of Manufactures, 1947* (22, 23) was the first to appear since 1939. It was customary until 1939 to take this census every year, but World War II interrupted the sequence. In the future the Bureau of the Census plans to take this census every fifth year. The 1947 report contained a description of each of the 453 industries into which manufacturing establishments were classified. One out of six manufacturing establishments in the United States was concerned with food and kindred products. One in eight produced apparel and related products. One in eight was a printing and publishing establishment. One in ten manufactured lumber and products, except furniture. The number of establishments in these four industry groups accounted for half of all in the manufacturing industry. The manufacture of machinery required the greatest number of employees (1,545,000 in 1947) closely followed by the food and kindred products industry with 1,442,000 employees.

Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT). In March 1949 the U. S. Employment Service made the first revision of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (36). Originally published in 1939, the Dictionary for the first time made available descriptive information about most American occupations. Altho prepared primarily for the use of public employment offices and related vocational and personnel services, school counselors and teachers used it widely in advising students about their future occupations. It has proved to be one of the best single sources of job descriptions in the United States.

The collaborators of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* aimed to define jobs in broad, all-inclusive terms that could be applied generally to opportunities in all localities, but did not attempt to cover such variables as hours, wages, or jurisdictional matters. Trained job analysts went into hundreds of industrial plants and business establishments to observe thousands of occupations and record the information on job analysis schedules. Schedules on the same type of job were prepared by analysts in widely scattered offices in order that the composite national descriptions could incorporate all of the variations in a job. Completed schedules, varying from two to 30 pages, were sent to Washington where technical writers prepared the composite descriptions. The number of job analysis schedules in 1939 totaled 44,000 and subsequently reached well over 100,000.

The 1949 revision was divided into two volumes: Volume I, *Definitions of Occupational Titles*; and Volume II, *Occupational Classification* with code numbers and definitions of industrial designations. In Volume I the collaborators defined 22,028 different jobs which were also known by 17,995 additional titles, making a total of 40,023 defined titles. They kept in mind the fact that new jobs constantly appear and old ones change or become obsolete. The continuing nature of such research as a part of normal office operations materially aided the revisers of the compilation in 1949. In Volume II the collaborators featured a classification structure based on code numbers that automatically arranged occupations according to job factors, and added an industry index with definitions of industries and job titles arranged by industry.

The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* has facilitated labor recruitment for war industries and has been particularly useful to Selective Service Boards. In addition it has furnished a means of classifying civilian skills of persons entering and leaving the armed forces. In guidance programs it has often been the only source in which counselors and students could secure accurate information about obscure occupations.

Government Monographs on Occupations. Various Federal agencies have issued bulletins, leaflets and pamphlets that describe single occupations, or single groups of occupations. Greenleaf (5) summarized 285 of these publications. Those released since 1947 are briefly mentioned below.

Based on a large amount of research, the Women's Bureau published a number of bulletins directed to the guidance of girls and women in certain occupational fields at both high-school and college level. These monographs include: architecture and engineering (47), biological sciences (45), chemistry (44), dietetics (55), federal service (52, 53); geology, geography and meteorology (49); handbook of facts on women workers (51); higher-level positions (57), mathematics and statistics (46), occupations related to science (50), power laundries (40), physics and astronomy (48), police work (54), radio (42), science (43), social case work (56), telephone industry (39), and women's occupations thru seven decades (41).

In June 1947 the U. S. Employment Service issued their *Occupational Guide Series* (37, 38). Each guide was printed separately on heavy paper, 5 x 8 inches, ready for filing. Two types of guide were made: one on white paper stock *Job Description for (69 Jobs)* (37); and one on yellow paper stock *Labor Market Information for (21 Jobs)* (38). The outline for the former (37) included such topics as: (a) job summary, (b) work performed, (c) training, (d) occupational tests, (e) related occupations, (f) physical activities, (g) working conditions, (h) hazards, and (i) employment variables. The outline for the latter (38) included: (a) economic characteristics, (b) job prospects, (c) wages, (d) hours, (e) hiring practices, (f) provision for tools and equipment, (g) entrance and

advancement on the job, and (h) unions. Each guide was planned as a separate unit and material was collected as a result of nationwide studies. These brief, authentic, and pertinent guides about certain occupations were useful in helping young people to solve their occupational problems.

Occupational Outlook and Trends. Since 1947, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), thru its outlook research program, has developed a number of studies of special interest to counselors and guidance officers. From many sources both in and out of the government, the BLS obtained extensive information on employment, hours and earnings in industries, trends, and technological developments. The BLS staff then analyzed the information with the assistance of industrial leaders, trade unions, and professional societies. BLS researches on the status and outlook in different occupations and industries followed a general pattern to show what was done, demand and supply of products, job prospects in different areas, duties, training, qualifications, working conditions, earnings, and often prospects in different geographical parts of the United States. Descriptive vocational monographs were released on: building trades (24), ceramic engineers (25), electric light and power occupations (26), elementary- and secondary-school teachers (27), engineers (28), nurses (29), petroleum production and refining (32), plastics products industry (33), radio and television broadcasting occupations (34), and railroad occupations (35).

In 1949 the BLS also issued the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* (30) including vocational information on 288 occupations. This descriptive study based on BLS research findings was prepared at the request and with the financial support of the Veterans Administration. The occupations selected were those found by the Veterans Administration to be of major interest to veterans requesting guidance. Some of the smaller fields were also included. The opportunities described represented about four out of five of the professional occupations, three out of four of the skilled occupations, two out of five of the clerical occupations, and one out of three of the service occupations. Certain types of information readily available from other sources were not included. This handbook was designed to reach some of the 1.5 million young people who enter the labor force each year, many of whom lack adequate job information.

The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* also included certain predictions concerning a number of jobs. Researchers have long known that it would be extremely useful in the occupational world if they could predict with certainty changes in the level of employment in various fields of work. Such predictions, however, have always been fraught by unforeseen conditions that completely change any predictions that might be made. Even short-time predictions have been upset because of wars, rumors of wars, inflation, depression, shortages of materials and supplies, weather, and innumerable other causes.

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CHAPTER VIII

Preparation of Teachers and Specialists for Guidance Service

CLIFFORD P. FROELICH

THIS chapter is organized around nine topics, chosen because each designates an area in which significant contributions have been made during the last three years. The topics, broadly interpreted, may be thought of as research trends. Characteristically, however, the literature of the period was a restatement of opinions of individuals and groups, the essence of which was identified in previous reviews in this series. Most are investigations of the *status quo*. Only a few of the studies reviewed here may properly be called basic research.

Surveys of Employed Guidance Workers

A wide variety of qualifications was revealed in studies of persons employed in guidance positions. Goheen and Ohlsen (20) concluded that the "typical guidance worker" employed in Washington (state) schools had the following pattern of training courses: (a) general psychology, (b) educational psychology, (c) general sociology, (d) educational guidance, and (e) either educational measurements or mental measurements. Houston (25) reported a study of college personnel workers in 52 institutions by members of the committee of the American College Personnel Association, which made the unpublished study. Deficiencies in training and qualifications were mentioned most frequently by those personnel workers interviewed. Atkins (3) in a summary of a more comprehensive, but unidentified, study concluded that the desirable qualifications for personnel workers were personality, professional competence, intelligence, social consciousness, and character. Simmers and Davis (40) studied high-school guidance workers. The following specific guidance courses in order of frequency of mention were included in the training of 50 percent of the counselors: educational guidance, testing, adolescent psychology, vocational guidance, techniques of counseling, child psychology, and sociology. All of the 406 counselors had teaching experience. Three hundred forty-four regarded such experience as valuable, but only 127 recommended a specific number of years. Simmers and Davis concluded that "basic training for all counselors must include general emphasis on attitude, personality, social skill, philosophy of life, plus special emphasis in the fields for which the student is trained."

Analyses of Guidance Positions

Logical analyses of counselors' functions and duties have been used as suggested by Jager (26) who proposed the job-analysis approach as a means of determining curriculum for training counselors. Fletcher (17) published a set of job descriptions based upon information gathered by means of questionnaire and personal contact. He described five counseling positions in noneducational agencies and seven counseling occupations in educational institutions. Each job description included alternate titles and discussed duties, qualifications, and prospects. Arnold (2) analyzed the replies to a questionnaire by 126 counselors and deans who devoted one-third or more time to counseling. Neither of these studies presented true "job analyses" in the sense that the term is used by the U. S. Employment Service. This Service, in cooperation with the Study Commission of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations and several State employment services, completed a job analysis of educational personnel work positions which now awaits publication.

Training Standards Recommended by Professional Associations

A committee of the American College Personnel Association proposed that the basic core of training for all personnel workers in colleges and universities include psychology of personality, social psychology, principles of learning, mental tests and their interpretations, interviewing and counseling procedures, and higher education. Representatives of eight professional associations and governmental agencies (1) recommended a common core of preparation for all counselors regardless of their place of employment or area of specialization. The recommended areas, each of which is described briefly in the committee report are: (a) philosophy and principles; (b) the study of the individual; (c) collecting, evaluating, and using occupational, educational, and related information; (d) administrative and community relationships; (e) technics used in counseling; and (f) supervised experience in counseling (35). In addition to work in these areas, a committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association proposed that counselors preparing to help persons with their educational and vocational problems receive training in: group methods in guidance, placement and follow-up technics, and methods of research and evaluation. The National Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainers in a series of reports published by the Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency (44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50) recommended that a counselor possess a master's degree with training in each of the following areas in addition to the basic guidance course: (a) the counseling process; (b) understanding the individual; (c) educational and occupational information; (d) administrative relationships of the guidance program; and (e) research and evaluation

procedures for counselors. The specific competencies which a counselor should have in each of these areas were indicated.

The Guidance Role of Staff Members

The guidance functions associated with educational positions have received a great deal of attention (10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 19, 29, 30, 56). After surveying the guidance duties of 68 high-school principals in Kansas, Wilcox (52) concluded that many functions of an adequate guidance program were not provided in schools where the principal is the major guidance officer. Mathews (33) reported that 16 of 25 state superintendents believed that inservice guidance training should be provided for teachers, and that 11 believed that teacher-training programs should place more emphasis on the use of guidance technics. It appears that increasing attention is being given to the guidance role of persons other than counselors in order that appropriate guidance training may be planned for them.

Training Programs in College

Froehlich and Spivey (18) studied guidance offerings in colleges and universities by reading the course descriptions given in 1010 college catalogs. The authors classified the guidance offerings in 12 broad areas. Eighty percent of the institutions offered training in four or fewer of the areas. Seven hundred ninety-two institutions offered courses in the area of tests and measurements; 548, understanding the individual; 513, basic guidance courses; 453, mental hygiene; 169, counseling. Fewer than 100 institutions offered courses in the following areas: (a) occupational information; (b) supervised practice; (c) organization and administration; and (d) group methods. Of the 271 colleges and universities replying to a questionnaire prepared by LaBarre (31), 110 indicated that they had an organized program of graduate training for educational personnel work. Variations in the institution's interpretation of the questionnaire appear when the data reported in this study are compared with those obtained by independent evaluation of the guidance offerings in the same institutions reported in the Froehlich-Spivey study. The U. S. Office of Education continued its series of directories listing the summer offerings of guidance and personnel work in colleges and universities; the most recent one was the 1950 edition. In analyzing the contents of the 1948 listing, Bell (5) found that only one-third of the summer guidance instructors belonged to one of the major professional guidance organizations. Myers (34) analyzed the 1949 edition and noted an increase in the numbers of colleges and universities offering guidance courses.

Teaching Methods for Practical Application of Principles

During the period covered by this REVIEW, many recommendations for guidance training have emphasized laboratory experience and supervised practice (35, 48), but few studies of the effectiveness of these procedures have been published (4, 36). Berg and Van Dusen (8) described a training program for counselors of normal adults, which combined supervised practice in counseling with individual study and seminars. Ninety percent of the persons counseled by the trainees indicated satisfaction with their counselor. All trainees reported "a personal feeling of professional growth and competence." Hoppock (24) taught some classes in group guidance procedures by a "question-and-answer" method and with others used a "demonstration method." Differences between methods were evaluated by four criteria. Hoppock concluded that for these students working in these courses with this instructor in this institution, the demonstration method was clearly superior to the question-and-answer method. The data presented also suggest that Hoppock's conclusion should be generalized to indicate that students prefer the demonstration method.

Certification of Counselors

The certification of counselors by state departments of education was studied by Benson and Froehlich (6) and Woellner and Wood (54). The data reported by Woellner and Wood do not appear to be complete, since casual inspection by this reviewer revealed that the certification requirements for counselors in at least two states are not accurate. Woellner (53) in another article summarized his findings that 15 states issued certificates to public school counselors. Two additional states grant teaching certificates which recognize majors or minors in guidance work. All state certification plans follow the traditional pattern of prescribing a certain number of credit hours in specific courses, the median number of semester hours required being 16. Woellner, however, believes that it is unfortunate that the requirements are not being stated in terms of competencies which are expected of the applicant for a counselor's certificate. According to Woellner, courses required most frequently are the basic course, occupational information, counseling, tests and measurements, and analysis of the individual. However, even tho these are the courses most frequently required, their listing does not mean that the states have adequate certification requirements. Benson and Froehlich (6) found, for example, that half of the states having certification programs will issue counselor's certificates, even tho the applicant presents no evidence of training in the principles of counseling. Stone (42), in a survey of 498 school superintendents in California, found that 275 were in favor of a special certificate for guidance duties, 186 were opposed to it, and 37 were undecided. The Utah State Department of Public Instruction (51)

in a questionnaire study of various groups of educators found practically unanimous attitude favoring the certification of counselors.

Personal Qualifications of Counselors

A priori standards for the selection of counselors emphasize the personal qualities of counselors (37, 38). Graver (21) asked 91 counselors to designate personality traits which they felt were necessary in their work. Hardy (22) concluded from a study of counselor responses to statements of counselees that the hypothesis that "dominance is negatively correlated with non-directiveness has not been sustained." Kaback (27), studying the characteristics of 34 nurse counselors, found that they had: (a) average or above mental ability; and (b) high social service, artistic, and literary scores, and low clerical, mechanical, and persuasive scores on the *Kuder Preference Record*. *Bernreuter Personality Inventory* and group Rorschach scores reflected well-adjusted personalities.

Tests of Counselor Competency

Schuyler (39) described a test of professional knowledge for secondary-school counselors. Counselors, she concluded, need more training in principles of psychology, mental hygiene, technics of counseling, and statistics. Drucker and Remmers (12) compared counselors' ratings with their scores on a test, *How I Counsel*. Self-ratings on quality of counseling done with students having vocational and personal problems correlated approximately .50 with test scores. Using the test, *How I Counsel*, McClelland and Sinaiko (32) developed an empirical scoring key for 40 of the 74 items. The American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology have described the general contents of an examination given to applicants for its diploma in counseling and guidance (23). No studies of its validity have been published. Kelly and Fiske (28) reported preliminary validation data on various assessment procedures used for selection of clinical psychology trainees in the Veterans Administration. Interviews, projective tests, and other subjective evaluation procedures did not prove to be as valid as objective tests. An especially prepared key for the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* yielded a single score which "predicted each of several criteria as well as any of the clinical judgments made in the entire assessment program." These findings, although based on clinical psychology trainees, appear to have important implications for testing of potential guidance workers.

Summary

Despite individual variations, most recommendations for the training of guidance specialists agree that specialized training is necessary in

addition to that required of teachers. These recommendations are supported in part by job analyses, but there is little other evidence of their validity. Surveys of employed guidance workers have thrown little light on the training needed, but have revealed the great disparity between recommended training and that actually possessed by on-the-job counselors.

There is bewildering variation in guidance courses offered by colleges and universities. Many instructors in these courses are not associated with professional guidance organizations. Few studies of teaching methods for guidance courses have been reported.

The desirability of counselor qualifications, as demanded by state certification plans, remains unconfirmed because no adequate research to support them has been reported. A promising beginning has been made in the study of personal qualifications and in developing tests of competence.

To this reviewer, the research most needed in this area should be designed to ascertain the validity of guidance training programs and methods. Such research should be directed toward determining what training is essential for success as a guidance worker and which teaching methods are most effective.

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